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PRESIDENT TRUMAN TRIES AGAIN

ONCE more the issue of peacetime conscription, or universal military training, is before Congress, before the American people, and before the educators of America. The proposal for peacetime conscription was made several times during the war and again last year. Each time it failed, even though it had the backing of both President Roosevelt and President Truman.

This year the War Department is making another effort to put through universal military training. The Navy is lukewarm on the project. The American Legion has not favored some of the War Department's proposals in the past, and the new proposal of the War Department is designed to gain the support of the Legion.

To get a more favorable hearing from the public, and especially from educators, the War Department has hit on an ingenious device. The Secretary of War has selected a group of prominent citizens, and President

Truman has appointed this group as an "Advisory Commission on Universal Military Training." The publicity from Washington manages to leave the impression that this Commission is being asked to study the need for universal military training and to report a plan in case there proves to be a need. Actually, all the members of the Commission are in favor of universal military training, and their function is to lend support to the War Department's plan.

The Commission consists of prominent and worthy individuals, and there is no doubt about the sincerity of their conviction that universal military training is desirable in the United States of America. The members of the Commission are Joseph E. Davies, former United States ambassador to Russia; Daniel A. Poling of Boston, editor of the *Christian Herald*; Judge Samuel I. Rosenman of New York, former counsel of the President; Mrs. Anna Rosenberg of New York, industrial relations expert; Truman K. Gib-

son, Jr., of Chicago, former civilian aide to the Secretary of War; Harold W. Dodds, president of Princeton University; Rev. Edmund A. Walsh, vice-president of Georgetown University; Karl T. Compton, president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; and Charles E. Wilson, president of General Electric Company.

It will be noticed that educators and religious leaders are prominent on the Commission. The reason for their appointment is that much of the opposition to peacetime conscription has come from educational and religious groups. Consequently the presence of educators and religious leaders may lead some people to suppose that these groups have changed their positions on the issue, but Karl T. Compton and Harold W. Dodds, though eminent men, are members of a very small minority of educators who favor universal military training.

Among the religious leaders on the Truman Commission is Daniel A. Poling, editor of a religious journal. Dr. Poling stands almost alone among Protestant leaders in his approval of universal military training. The governing bodies of the larger Protestant denominations have gone on record as opposing it. Father Walsh, of Georgetown University, is one of a few Catholic leaders who favor universal military training. The Council of Archbishops and Bishops of the Roman Catholic Church has opposed it.

The American Council on Education, which represents American

higher education and has a substantial representation among educators in the public schools, has consistently opposed the bills for universal military training which have been before Congress and has asked the President to appoint an unprejudiced commission to study the matter. *President Truman's Commission is not the commission recommended by the American Council on Education.* Instead, it has been hand-picked by the Secretary of War to give the kind of report that the War Department wants.

The issue will probably be settled this spring. Educators who want to make their views known and felt should do so immediately.

WHITHER HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE?

FORCES are at work in the United States which within the next two decades may bring about significant changes in both the structure and the function of secondary education. Similar changes took place after World War I. Social and economic conditions accelerated a transition from the highly selective and narrowly functioning high school into the universal and comprehensive secondary schools of the present day. Both high-school and college enrolments almost doubled in the period 1920-30 and increased another 50 per cent in the decade 1930-40. The junior-college movement began to spread until there are now more than 650 such institutions, approximately half of which are units of public-school systems. While it is

dangerous to generalize too much from previous experience, that experience should lead us to examine carefully the trends and conditions that may shape secondary education and its relationships to the college in the future.

Social and technological changes Reporting in *Geriatrics* for September-October, 1946, in an article entitled "Mortality and Life Expectancy," William S. Groom states that, from 1900 to 1940, life expectancy at birth has increased 14.6 years for white males and 16.2 years for white females in the United States. This has resulted in a spectacular gain in the number of persons aged 65 or over. While the total population increased only 7 per cent from 1930 to 1940, the number of persons between 65 and 75 increased 35 per cent and the population 75 and over registered a 38 per cent gain during the ten-year period. More and more, these older people are staying in the economy. Recently a New York State senator, stressing the part that older people had played during the wartime period, proposed legislative steps which included provisions for prolonging the earning period of these persons. Neither our social ideals nor the power of the vote will permit society to sacrifice older people for younger.

Although the gainfully employed reached a peacetime high of sixty million persons in 1946, an increase in the average age of the working population points to an early return to a

dearth of job opportunities for youth in their teens. Even now educators are reporting that student applications for part-time work are not meeting with success. Older people are remaining at their jobs, and more experienced full-time workers are returning from the armed services and the war plants. These and similar facts point to a return to the youth problem of the 1920's (not that of the depression '30's) at a higher age level. Even in the midst of relative prosperity, mixed with some recessions, it may be difficult for the high-school graduate to find a suitable place in adult society.

Technological developments have accelerated changes in our economy and social relationships. At one time it was possible to begin in a low-status job in a firm and work one's way up to a high position. More recently an additional starting-point has become common, those who would aspire to supervisory, staff, and executive positions requiring more education before starting upon the higher ladder. They have made their own way, whereas strong unions have registered gains for the organized workers. Now there is a tendency to three starting-points corresponding to "time-clock," "check-list," and "executive" personnel. The equivalent educational bases may well be a high-school education, post-high-school education with technical or semiprofessional training, and university work in professional or specialized fields.

Below the professional-managerial level, there is evidence that more indi-

viduals with training beyond high school but less than that required for full professional competence are needed. A recent report of the Consulting Committee on Vocational-Technical Training, *Vocational-Technical Training for Industrial Occupations*, published by the United States Office of Education, states that an average of 5.2 technicians are required for each engineer, with a range of ratios from 2 to 1 up to 20 to 1. Before the war the ratio was about 2.5 to 1. It may well be that there is a comparable change in other fields. Certainly many organizations, private as well as public, have been expanding their "white-collar" staff and service workers.

These developments, taken together with the upgrading of the age of the working population as a whole, point to the necessity for reorganization of educational programs to take care of those who will seek additional schooling. The press for *more* education and a *different kind* of education will come both from those who are waiting to find places in adult society and from those who are looking for higher positions or are attempting to hold the status gained by their parents. Hidden behind the considerations of security that motivate the proposals before President Truman's Committee on Universal Military Training, no matter how ill-conceived in terms of the welfare of young Americans, may be some realization of the imminence of this extended period of waiting before induction into adult society.

Veterans in the colleges The situation is further complicated by the large number of veterans seeking higher education. President Raymond Walters, of the University of Cincinnati, in his annual report on "Statistics of Attendance in American Universities and Colleges, 1946," appearing in *School and Society* for December 21, 1946, begins with the statement that "a new era has begun for American higher education." At 668 *approved* universities and four-year colleges a total of 1,331,138 full-time students, 714,447 of whom are veterans, represent a gain of 57 per cent in enrolment over the largest peacetime year, 1939-40. In 650 junior colleges the enrolment is approximately 350,000 students (240,000 men and 110,000 women), about 150,000 being veterans. Nearly 55 per cent of the veterans have entered universities and large institutions of complex organization. Whereas the ratio in wartime has been six women to four men, it is now back to a pre-war base of two men to one woman student. In some cases limitations have been placed on the number of Freshman women and nonveteran Freshman men enrolled. Even so, the number of women attending college in 1946 has increased 16 per cent in comparison with the previous year.

The pressure put on institutions of higher education by the veterans will not abate for some time. The November 25 bulletin of the American Council on Education, *Higher Education and National Affairs*, places the number of veterans who have applied for a certifi-

icate of eligibility and entitlement at 5,000,000 on October 31, 1946. Of these, the Veterans Administration reports, 55 per cent desire to be students in institutions of higher learning—75 per cent of these beginning as Freshmen or Sophomores, 15 per cent as upperclassmen, and 10 per cent as graduate students. The seriousness of the situation in higher institutions is pointed out:

Indications are that when the present large Freshman class reaches its Senior year, if college facilities allow, there will be equally large classes at each lower level. . . .

Pressure for expansion of college enrolments over the next few years will come also from the sharp upturn of approximately 25 per cent in the number of young men graduating from high school this next June and the gradual increase in the number of young women who seek to enter college . . . students transferring from the present temporary provisions and from junior colleges will make an unprecedented demand two years from now upon institutions providing four-year courses. . . .

There is a very vital issue as to whether or not the increased enrolment of the next five years will continue after veteran enrolment begins to decline.

The G.I.'s and the Colleges, Veterans Report 4, prepared by the Editorial Extension Department of the Crowell-Collier Publishing Company, reminds us that behind the present "bulge" in enrolment is a "deferred demand" of married veterans who cannot find housing, of other veterans working to save additional money, and of high-school graduates working, in a time of relatively high employment, between high school and college.

The colleges and universities have

taken steps to meet the emergency. Some have merely increased the use of existing facilities. The best guess would place the ceiling on this type of expansion at about 40 per cent. Most institutions do not wish to operate under such pressure for too long a period. Many have increased their physical plants, especially with emergency housing that can be written off over a short period of time. No college is building beyond its estimate of an optimum for a more settled period, and many do not want to grow. Although the proportion of first-grade entrants who continue their schooling through high-school graduation may rise from the pre-war level of 40 per cent to the 70 per cent level of the more financially able states under new conditions, universities are well aware that only a limited number of persons are capable of pursuing specialized or professional education. Some higher institutions may meet the press of Senior and graduate enrolment by restricting the Freshman and Sophomore years, as the Canadian universities have done in the case of their first year. In Canada, senior high schools and "collegiates" have a Grade XIII which gives, among other programs, a "senior matriculation" curriculum permitting entrance into what would be the Sophomore year in the United States. These programs have expanded rapidly over the past twenty years.

American institutions of higher education are taking a step in this direction by setting up co-operative programs, frequently under the leader-

ship of the state department of education, just as the provincial department of education co-operates with the universities in Canada. Pennsylvania, for example, has been divided into nine regions with a maximum commuting range of twenty-five miles. Ten centers giving Freshman work in Grade XIII have been set up in high schools and other appropriate buildings. These are operated as an agency of the Department of Public Instruction, in co-operation with the colleges. If the trends continue, such developments may well be a first step toward state grants to the support of public junior colleges, many of which will be integrated into existing school systems.

Forgotten high-school graduates The forces that are bringing about increasing demands for education of a post-high-school level will also place greater stress upon making higher education available to students with limited funds. In this situation, a number of educators are becoming increasingly concerned with the types of higher training that will be available to prospective students who cannot meet the raised entrance requirements of colleges and universities.

The *Biennial Report* of the Oregon State Board of Higher Education, dated October, 1946, points out that the young high-school graduate should not be denied opportunities in the years ahead:

The young high-school graduate in the next few years, who may or may not be a

veteran, depending on the continuation of selective service, threatens to be our "forgotten man." There is a real danger that these able youngsters may find themselves actually crowded out of the higher educational institutions. If and when they succeed in entering a college, they will face competition with more mature minds, and when they complete their college education they will face competition with those who have preferred status in many types of employment.

Junior colleges versus community institutes These trends and influences are lending an impetus to the junior-college movement, which is in an expansive mood.

In the March, 1946, issue of the *Nation's Schools*, Herold C. Hunt, superintendent of schools at Kansas City, presents an administrator's viewpoint in a succinct article, "Emerging Need for Grades XIII and XIV." He refers to the primary purpose of the junior college as being that of rounding out a comprehensive program of general education for all. He also points to the success with which the junior college has carried out the university-preparatory function, its effectiveness in providing terminal education for a large proportion of its students, and its tendency to become the cultural center for an entire area. He would have such colleges established as part of the public-school system at the secondary-school level using either the 6-4-4 or the 8-4-2 plan, as circumstances dictate. He considers these as "community institutes," where "one of the major emphases in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades will be upon education and preparation for the occupations which lie between the

trades and the professions and which require technical training and the development of leadership for supervisory responsibilities." Hunt feels that the broad offerings of publicly operated "community institutes" will bridge the gap between normal high-school graduation and initial employment and make for more effective and more satisfying accomplishment in the graduate's first job. Certainly his conception of a higher secondary school, adapted in the light of a greater knowledge of the realities of the economic and social situation, forecasts a potentially valuable agency for inducting many of our young people into adult society.

Reorienting high schools It is to the importance of considering alternatives such as Hunt suggests that Charles M. Armstrong, of the New York State Department of Education, refers in the *Clearing House* for November, 1946, in evaluating "Increased College Attendance and the High School."

A serious danger for the immediate future is the apparent belief that education can continue to follow established trends indefinitely. . . .

At present, the secondary schools are providing terminal education for a considerable number of fairly high-level "white-collar" jobs and for most skilled manual jobs. . . .

If we duplicate our training for various occupations by turning out prospective entrants at both the college and the high-school level, there will be a serious oversupply in these occupations, and the low-ability persons will be crowded out.

Ultimately, Armstrong points out, the high schools are likely to find that

specialized terminal education will undergo a shift to higher grades and that the high-school function will be to serve two main groups: those "preparing to continue their education" and those "planning to take the simple unskilled or semiskilled jobs." There will, of course, be the subgroups who require "opportunities to assist them in selecting their areas of specialization" or to develop leisure-time talents and interests. If this forecast carries merit, the high school of the future may regain its true function of supplying a general education, freed of the burden of occupational specialization.

Permissive legislation The establishment of two levels of public secondary education, high school and junior college (or community institute), requires financial support. The *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association* for October, 1946, "School Finance Goals," indicates that up to 1945-46 only four states had provisions for the allocation of state funds for the support of Grades XIII and XIV in the public-school system and that only nine states provided funds for education of students beyond Grade XII. However, the present year seems to be bringing changes in this situation. Moreover, current school laws place few restrictions on the local unit in the improvement of the educational programs. Once a solution to a pressing problem is found, support tends to follow.

Some states are moving toward the

establishment of the junior or community college as an integral part of the local school system, by setting up legislation or incentives for district reorganization. In *A Digest of a Report of a Survey of Public Education in the State of Washington*, George D. Strayer and his associates report:

The legislation of 1945 was sound in its assignment of the immediate government of each public junior college to the board of directors of the local school district in which the junior college is located. It was sound also in assigning over-all supervision of public junior colleges to the State Board of Education.

The report offers two principles for locating public junior colleges. First, opportunities should be available to all youth within daily travel distance of their homes. In Washington, 17 areas of concentration would serve 83 per cent of the youth of the state. Second, the area served should have sufficient secondary-school population to maintain a unit of economical size, offering a program varied enough to serve the needs of the youth and adults of the area:

Junior colleges of less than 400 students in regular full-time attendance are not economical nor capable of offering or sustaining a well-rounded program. . . . a junior college which embraces Grades XI through XIV can offer a more extensive and richer program upon the basis of fewer students in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades than can a junior college embracing Grades XIII and XIV only.

Reorganization has proceeded in Washington to the point where 60 per cent of the pupils in secondary schools are in 6-3-3 or 6-6 systems. Approxi-

mately 90 per cent of the youth of the state now enter Grade IX, and 70 per cent graduate from high school. Permissive legislation now in force will facilitate further changes.

Developmental tasks There is increasing recognition of the fact that the years of late adolescence, represented by the ages from sixteen to twenty, constitute a coherent social group. They have a greater number of common social interests and more nearly similar problems of development than does the group from ages fourteen to eighteen in our high schools. There is a difference in the developmental tasks of early adolescence, the twelve- to sixteen-year-old age group who would attend the new high school (including Grades VII-X) and those of more mature youth preparing for induction into adult society, the sixteen- to twenty-year-old age group who would attend the junior or community college (including Grades XI-XIV in the 6-4-4 plan).

The choice between alternatives for upward extension of educational programs rests, of course, upon a number of factors. Among these are the press created by social and economic conditions for a longer period, and a different kind, of education, the study of possible alternatives in the light of both the community situation and the wider area, together with local acceptance and the provision of a financial base.

Integrating school and college During 1946 Harper and Brothers published two significant books on the four-year junior college.

John A. Sexson, superintendent of schools at Pasadena, California, and John W. Harbeson, principal of the Pasadena Junior College, the upper secondary-school part of a 6-4-4 system, are the authors of *The New American College*. On the basis of their experience and wide study, they present a history of the development of the four-year college embracing Grades XI-XIV, discuss the various offerings, and provide a detailed description of the organization and administration of the college as an integral part of the secondary-school system.

The second book, *Integrating High School and College*, a study of "The Six-four-four Plan at Work," by Leonard V. Koos, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago, represents a penetrating analysis of the problems arrived at through years of experience and research. In a comparative study of three- and four-year junior high school programs, Koos summarizes his findings in regard to the superiority of the four-year school from Grade VII to X, which he sees in the future as the "high school." He states that there is greater breadth and depth to the curricular and extra-curriculum program, demonstrated maturity of pupil leadership from the tenth-grade students, more balance in the preparation and merit of the staffs, and a more ade-

quate plant utilized to a greater extent when special facilities are considered. Furthermore, the age span of the four-year junior high school carries the pupils through early adolescence.

Koos points out that the traditional separation of Grades XI and XII in high schools and Grades XIII and XIV in junior colleges and other institutions has hindered the development of a single continuous plan of education. In particular, "To move from emphasis on specialization [in the high school] to emphasis on general education [as represented by survey courses in the college] is reversing the logical curriculum sequence."

Koos compares four-year schools embracing Grades XI-XIV with separate two-year junior colleges and those associated with, but not part of, high schools. The effectiveness of a unified and co-ordinated guidance program is reflected in the greater retention of students and the higher distribution of students into semiprofessional and other terminal curriculums. The vertical spread of teaching assignments through Grades XI-XIV permits a greater breadth of offerings as well as a sensible articulation of the program. Vertical integration makes for financial economy as well as educational advantages, because size is always a determinant in cost; because the same administrators, supervisors, and teaching staff operate at the two levels; and because there is a dual-level use of facilities. In assessing facilities, Koos concludes that sepa-

rate junior colleges must have at least a thousand students to be self-sufficient in respect to general and specialized facilities unless they operate uneconomically or make available too restricted an offering. In summing up his study, Koos says: "The main conclusion is that the 6-4-4 plan is at once the most effective and the most economical means of bringing the full advantage of the junior high school and the junior college to the community." In light of the forces at work to bring about change and in light of our responsibilities as educators, it is indeed time for consideration of these or alternative plans to meet the new situation.

REHABILITATION OF EDUCATION IN EUROPE

ANYONE who wants to know what the war did to education in the war-ravaged countries of central Europe can now find out by reading the reports which are appearing from American observers. One of the best of these reports and one which, because of the quality of its thought and writing, deserves to be preserved in a form more permanent than its present paper cover, is the *Report of the United States Education Mission to Germany* (available from the United States Government Printing Office, at 15 cents).

The American mission was led by George F. Zook, president of the American Council on Education. The report is written with a compassion which, it may be hoped, will character-

ize our actual practice in assisting defeated Germany to reconstruct her educational and cultural life. It will be a long and difficult task, for the destruction was terrible and far-reaching. These paragraphs from the report give the idea:

Nowhere are the vagaries of war's destruction more apparent than in the physical condition of the various educational institutions of the United States Zone. The universities and institutions of higher learning by virtue of the extensiveness of their physical plant afford a striking demonstration of the prevailing condition. Heidelberg, Erlangen, and Marburg are intact. One-third of the buildings of Frankfurt are totally destroyed, and another third that can eventually be repaired are still unusable. Roughly one-half of the university buildings at Munich are destroyed, and Wurzburg is in even worse shape. . . .

Moreover, even where school buildings have escaped fire and bomb, all too often they are still unavailable for educational purposes because of requisitioning by the United States Army, by UNRRA, and by German housing authorities. For the elementary schools alone it was found on the first of September of this year [1946] that 349 schools were still used for other purposes than education in the United States Zone. . . .

The consequences of this lack of space joined to the teacher shortage resulting from denazification is everywhere to be seen in overcrowded classrooms. The average teacher-pupil ratio in Bavarian elementary schools was still on the first of September one to eighty-three. The result is an almost universal resort to shifts. Even in the elementary school many children receive but two hours of instruction a day. It is to the great credit of the teachers at all levels that they have often increased their own hours of work by as much as 50 per cent in order that their students might have a chance at more attention in smaller classes in key subjects.

But the lack of adequate space is only the beginning of the universal tale of dearth and privation. At Darmstadt students of the *Technische Hochschule* are using their vacation to recover laboratory equipment from the rubble and repair it in makeshift basement workshops. The loss of books is incalculable. . . . From the smallest one-room rural school to the university, there is a universal dearth of textbooks and workbooks. . . . Finally there is universal concern over the prospects of heating next winter, for the basic shortage of coal that everywhere restricts activities in the United States Zone here threatens the very possibility of keeping educational institutions open in really cold weather.

All this makes the task of the teacher doubly hard at a time when he is perhaps least fitted to bear the additional burden. To begin with, he is too often himself past his prime of vigor and hopefulness. The very fact that at the time of the reopening of the schools in Greater Hesse the average age of all teachers recruited to teach was fifty-two gives the key to perhaps the most distressing fact about the German teaching profession today, the want of youth in its ranks. . . .

But this matter of age is only the first of the present teacher's handicaps. Like most Germans, he is cold and hungry and short of clothes and every working tool. . . .

Moreover, at a time when German young people at every educational level are making unusual demands upon their teachers' breadth of experience and steadiness of vision, the German teacher is himself conscious of his isolation from the rest of the intellectual world. In some fields, of course, technical journals and books were available as late as 1938. But in many fields Nazi theory began to cut off information from the outside world as early as 1933, and in all fields Nazi exchange-control policy restricted the importation of books from other countries. The war years brought, of course, a nearly complete black-out of foreign sources of information in most fields, and cut off personal relations with fellow-workers in

other countries. The result is that at precisely the time when his students are most eager to learn about the outside world, the German teacher finds himself not only ill-equipped to satisfy this valuable curiosity, but with very scant prospect of access to the books and journals and materials he needs unless the Allied countries come to his aid.

Under these circumstances, well-fed, well-equipped American educators who confront German teachers with the necessary challenge to reconsideration of methods and objectives may quite understandably become impatient of the German teachers' prevailing anxiety to reconstruct the educational situation of the Weimar Republic. But at the same time they may well wonder whether under the same conditions they would easily find the moral and physical energy to strike out afresh into what must seem to many of these overburdened men and women a wilderness of obscurities and uncertainties. The challenge to a new spirit and new methods must be made in the interest of Germany as well as in our own and the world's interest, but it must be made with sympathy and imagination, and reinforced with a more generous provision of the tools of education than up to now has been found possible.

To assist educational reconstruction in the countries that need it, whether they be former friends or enemies, there has been set up a Commission for International Educational Reconstruction. Members of the Commission represent some twenty American educational organizations. The chairman is T. G. Pullen, of the National Council of Chief State School Affairs; and the vice-chairman is A. J. Brumbaugh, of the American Council on Education. Harold E. Snyder is executive secretary. A grant from the Carnegie Corporation gives initial support to the Commission. The

Commission will work closely with UNESCO.

LITERATURE FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

TWO articles in the December issue of the *English Journal* indicate problems of concern to secondary-school teachers. One, Granville Hicks's "P-N Fiction," has to do with the place in the literary stream of such books as *The Lost Weekend* and *The Snake Pit*. The other, by George W. Norvell, supervisor of English for the New York State Department of Education, deals with the outcomes of a twelve-year study of children's reading interests. Both point to the desirability of a more sophisticated analysis and evaluation of reading materials used by adolescents in the light of individual and social factors.

The army term for psychoneurotics, "P-N," is used by Granville Hicks to make the reader conscious of fiction dealing with socio-psychological deviations. The author of the recent literary approach to social anthropology, *Small Town*, believes that two changes have made us increasingly aware of the range of human maladjustments: an increase in mental disease (or in the diagnosis of it) and the creation of a new vocabulary for discussing it. Hicks feels that man's increasing control over his physical environment, accelerated by technological improvements, is balanced, even outweighed, by his defenselessness against social forces and that, as a result, he experiences greater tension and insecurity.

The new vocabulary is important, too. One need not suppose that the Freudians have "explained" mental disorder once and for all, but they have created a way of talking about it, one that has pretty well proved its superiority not only to theological and moralistic modes of discussion but also to the empirical psychiatry of the late nineteenth century. Sharp distinctions between normality and abnormality have been broken down, and phenomena that once seemed as mysterious as they were alarming have been fitted into the broad patterns of human behavior.

There are many contemporary novelists whose works add to the impression that there is widespread concern with the maladjustments of individuals. Many of these novelists appear to see a kind of significance that lies outside the range of the professional psychologist. Books like *The Lost Weekend* and *The Snake Pit*, which extend our awareness through the vivid re-creation of an experience, are a sign of the times, but Hicks believes:

We need to bear in mind certain elementary distinctions with regard to the nature of literature. In the first place, the novel has always been used as a means of conveying information, and, whatever the aesthetes may say, this is a legitimate function. On the other hand, novels cannot serve as a substitute for textbooks and scientific treatises. Moreover, the conveying of information is a secondary function of literature. When the great psychologists have turned to literature, as most of them have, it has not been for the sake of information but for the sake of those insights that are the peculiar endowment of the artist. The man of letters, in other words, has his own kind of authority, and whether he writes what we have called P-N fiction, or not, that is what counts.

Hicks feels that such novels are important documents in the education of the public but that, since the experiences are described from within, it is difficult to evaluate the behaviors in terms of the more general problems of living in modern society. Nevertheless, these books, which reflect a consciousness of the anxieties and conflicts within and around us, are read by high-school students. One might expect the secondary school and its teachers to create an opportunity to discuss such works and help the student interpret them into a meaningful pattern. Otherwise, they remain a part of that idiomatic world of private meanings for each young reader. Surely this is a part, if only a small one, of the school's function of providing social meanings for the vicarious as well as the real experiences of its members.

In an article describing "Some Results of a Twelve-Year Study of Children's Reading Interests," George W. Norvell decries two mutually opposing principles which have governed the assembling of classroom reading materials: adult choice and supposed popularity with children on the basis of "expert" opinion. The study was based on the tabulation of 1,590,000 reports on literary selections made by 50,000 pupils in all types of communities in New York State. On classroom blanks, pupils were urged to give their "candid opinions" of the degree of interest or non-interest in listed selections. The final report will provide interest scores, by sex as well as a

composite rating, on each of 1,700 selections commonly used for study in secondary schools.

In terms of increasing age or maturity of reading interests, Norvell reports that "much literary material being used in our schools is too mature, too subtle, too erudite to permit its enjoyment by the majority of secondary-school pupils." Some selections should be abandoned and others shifted to a more suitable grade level according to the interpretations made of the data. The evidence that two out of every three selections commonly used in the classroom are better liked by girls than by boys is related to "the unfavorable attitude taken by many boys toward school in general and toward the English class in particular." In addition, a table of literary types in order of preference and a chart showing an abbreviated scale of reading interest are included in the article. Norvell concludes his article with the suggestion that teachers and makers of courses of study replace selections in the current program with those of "equally high merit that children indorse," presumably using the criterion of interest score. "To increase reading skill, promote the reading habit, and produce a generation of book-lovers, there is no other factor so powerful as interest."

To be interested in a piece of literature is one thing; to have interest aroused in something fine or worth while is another. Certainly the power of the teacher to interpret good literature to the high-school student is a

critical element in evoking his interest. One teacher makes a literary selection live; another causes it to die a slow death. "Interest" is an ephemeral criterion. We need something more.

One promising approach to the analysis and evaluation of literature for young people is under way in the Center for Instructional Materials, a joint undertaking of the Department of Education and the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. Both the book "as an instrument of communication supplying vicarious experience" and the young reader are studied in the context of individual and social expectations and behaviors. Reading is regarded not as an end in itself but rather as a process. This approach focuses attention on the potentialities within a particular literary selection for bringing about changes in the young reader, on the variable responses of children and young people, and on potential uses of different kinds of materials.

According to a recent bulletin of the center, analysis is proceeding along both traditional and experimental lines. Certain categories have been found significant both to the librarian and to potential users of reading materials. The kinds of analyses now under way classify a book according to (1) subject area; (2) type of literature; (3) activity use—in the curricular, co-curricular, and out-of-school areas; (4) maturity level—in terms of level of appeal, readability, structural difficulty, potential use and values;

(5) appeals; and (6) developmental values. The categories are manifestly interrelated since both the appeals and the developmental values that are ascribed to a particular selection are used in determining its maturity level and in estimating its potential use.

Rather than evaluate in terms of "interest" (a word with many meanings), the center has used the word "appeal." "Appeal" has been defined by the center as follows:

Those factors which influence a child to read a book or, having embarked upon its reading, will sustain his interest throughout and which, on conclusion, leave him with an enthusiasm that will lead him to recommend it to others or to recapitulate or create in terms of the book.

A high reader appeal in a book creates a greater receptivity for its *developmental values*:

Those factors present in the book that will react on the child in such a way as to influence his personal and social behavior responses or relationships and beliefs, and to contribute to the development of his personality and character.

Thus appeals in a literary selection may arouse and sustain the interest of the individual. Furthermore, they may be instrumental in bringing about changes that influence beliefs and valuations and behavior responses. The center takes the point of view that no one book should be expected to be the complete instrument but that it may contribute to a task's accomplishment or to an awareness of some quality or aspect of the task. If it does succeed in this to some degree,

the book or literary selection has developmental value for the reader.

Part of the evaluation of a book proceeds in terms of the "expert" judgment of the staff of the center and consultants reached by various means. The significant departure, though, is in the means used to determine what the reading of a particular literary selection does to different children and young people. One technique has made use of the "focused interview," to ascertain the variable responses of readers, followed by analysis of these interviews. The center is now working on possible types of reports and a "story-projective" technique wherein the young reader will describe his own relationship to literary materials in a comparatively free and open situation, thus permitting interpretation of the responses of different individuals to various selections. The publication of the results of this investigation will be awaited with interest by both librarians and educators.

THE NEGRO TEACHER IN THE SOUTH

A FEW years ago a court decision was given which radically altered the long-established practice of systematically paying to Negro teachers lower salaries than are paid to white teachers in states with separate school systems for Negro and white children. The court decision restrained the educational authorities from making any discrimination on the grounds

of race or color in the fixing of teachers' salaries.

This court action has paved the way for substantial changes in a number of states. Naturally, these states moved slowly, and many Negroes feared that the old discrimination would be revived under another formula. How the changes have worked out in one state, South Carolina, is reported by E. Horace Fitchett in the fall, 1946, issue of the *Journal of Negro Education* in an article entitled "The New Program for the Recertification of Teachers in South Carolina."

In 1939-40 the average annual salary of Negro school teachers in South Carolina was \$399, while that of white teachers was \$988. A study of the state educational system was conducted with funds supplied by white and colored organizations in South Carolina, supplemented by a grant from the General Education Board. The Investigation of Educational Qualifications of Teachers in South Carolina occupied two years and resulted in a program which was adopted by the state.

The new plan involves classification of all teachers according to (1) the kind and amount of education the teacher has, (2) the teaching experience of the teacher, and (3) the teacher's standing on the National Teacher Examinations. Negro teachers have questioned the fairness of this program, since Negroes are so clearly at a disadvantage in taking the examinations because of the relative inferiority of their schools and colleges.

Tables given by Fitchett show that white teachers succeeded in getting a far greater proportion of the higher places, while the Negro teachers occupy mainly the lower-salary brackets in the new program. Mr. Fitchett sees a favorable side to the situation, however. He says:

The figures . . . do not signify what the most important differences in the two programs are. The 1939-40 schedule was based essentially on a caste ideology; differences in remuneration were based on race and color. The most revolutionary feature of the new plan is that it is designed on the basis of training and ability. Therefore it implicitly accepts the principle that basic differences are not founded on race and color; that some Negroes can be proved to be superior to some members of other races.

Some Negro teachers in South Carolina now have the same certificate and the same salaries as the ablest of the white teachers. Mr. Fitchett concludes:

1. The organization and prosecution of the new program has had a liberalizing and enlightening effect upon the teachers and officials of both races in the public-school system of education. It has been necessary to study and discuss the problems of education in the light of need, and in relation to the progressive movements in this field in other sections of America. Committee meetings

and study conferences were designed on the basis of the interests involved, ignoring, therefore, the fact of race and color, to a great extent. One conference was held for a week at one of the beaches where both racial groups met jointly to discuss and work on plans related to methods, materials, and techniques of teaching. In summarizing the outcomes of the conference the white representative remarked that: "Many of the delegates referred to a better understanding between the races as one of the best features of the meeting." . . .

3. The Negro teacher is represented in the lower brackets of the recertification program out of proportion to his numerical strength in the profession. This fact may be attributed to the differential treatment which has been imposed upon him by the social and educational system.

4. With the criteria for good teachers, and remuneration, based on training, experience, and objective test, the incentive for Negro teachers to pursue advanced training has been enhanced. The level of education and the culture of this group will increasingly rise as their pay for professional services is improved. The new evaluation principle is the most important feature of the program. It essentially repudiates the "white supremacy myth."

5. Because there has been included in the new plan a schedule for the Master's degree, the state will be constrained to provide such training for its Negro teachers.

ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST
J. CARSON MCGUIRE

WHO'S WHO FOR FEBRUARY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST, professor of education, and J. CARSON MCGUIRE, research associate in human development, both of the University of Chicago. PAUL B. DIEDERICH, associate professor of English and college examiner at the University of Chicago, explains a method of teaching English through the use of test exercises. RUSSELL J. FORNWALT, vocational counselor with the Big Brother Movement in New York City, presents a discussion of the problem of truancy based on actual case histories. ALEXANDER FRAZIER, secondary curriculum co-ordinator in the Los Angeles county schools, California, discusses the advisability of teaching the status system in the secondary schools and proposes a unit of study for presenting material on this subject to twelfth-grade pupils. WILLIAM M. MYERS, social-studies teacher at Eastern High School, Washington, D.C., suggests a new method for evaluating the outcomes of present-day education. The selected references on the subject fields have been prepared by DORA V.

SMITH, professor of education at the University of Minnesota; ROBERT E. KEOHANE, assistant professor of the social sciences in the College of the University of Chicago; EDITH P. PARKER, associate professor of the teaching of geography at the University of Chicago; WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP, associate professor of the teaching of science at the University of Chicago; G. E. HAWKINS, chairman of the Department of Mathematics at Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois; and FRANCIS F. POWERS, dean of the College of Education at the University of Washington.

Reviewers of books NELSON B. HENRY, professor of education at the University of Chicago. WILLIAM E. HENRY, research associate with the Committee on Human Development at the University of Chicago. ELGIN J. WOLLMAN, formerly teacher of mathematics and science in the high school at Letcher, South Dakota, and now a graduate student in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago.

TEACHING ENGLISH WITH TEST EXERCISES

PAUL B. DIEDERICH

University of Chicago

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THE remedial English program of the University of Chicago is based on a series of thirty test exercises of a type developed by the University's Board of Examinations for the United States Armed Forces Institute. Each test is built around one central theme, such as "The Responsibilities of an American Scholar" or "The Need for a New Bill of Rights." Every item in the examination is related to this central theme. There are no isolated sentences or paragraphs, each based on a different topic and each testing a particular skill in reading or writing, as in the usual standardized tests. Tests composed of unrelated material are avoided because the only material which is ever read in this unconnected fashion is the newspaper and because in later life probably no situation will ever arise in which it will be necessary to write a series of unconnected sentences. It was hoped that focusing the minds of students on a single broad problem over a period of three hours would enable the examiners to uncover the deeper levels of interpretation and expression and that the extensive context would provide a sufficient basis for reasonable choices, even on mat-

ters of taste and judgment that are not covered by arbitrary rules.

THE EXAMINATION

Each examination is divided into three parts: (1) an objective section on reading, (2) an objective section on writing, and (3) an essay. The reading section is often based on two or more fairly long passages dealing with the central theme from different points of view and in different literary forms—prose, poetry, drama, social documents, scientific papers, etc. There are multiple-choice questions on each passage and questions comparing the passages with one another. The writing section is based on complete papers written by students. Usually these students were asked to compare the views presented in the reading passages and then to state their own views on the same topic. The advantage of this tie-up between the reading and the writing sections is that, when the test-taker comes to the writing section, he is already familiar with the material on which the student paper was based and is in a position to judge which of four versions of the same phrase or sentence is the most adequate and accurate comment on the reading passages.

The student paper is printed in the left-hand column of a divided page. Certain portions are underlined or inclosed in brackets. These portions may or may not contain errors. Several ways of writing or arranging each marked portion are suggested in the column at the right. In order to facilitate reference, the first choice is always the original wording. Other choices may present alternative wordings; differences in punctuation; changes in the order of words, sentences, or paragraphs; comments on the underlined portion; or the direction "omit." Students indicate which version is best, in the light of the paper as a whole and of the reading passages on which it is based.

Almost every type of writing problem can be treated in this form and in the order in which these problems naturally occur in writing. In actual writing one does not concern one's self first with the punctuation, then with the grammar, and then with the arrangement, as the form of the usual writing test might suggest; one deals with all these problems concurrently and in relation to one another. Conservative test-makers object to the interdependence of items in these writing tests. They complain that, if a student goes wrong on the first of a chain of items, he is likely to miss all the rest. The reply to this objection is that actual writing problems *are* interdependent; to separate them is to give up any possibility of testing the dependence of one choice upon another.

Another objection is that, after all

the corrections are made, the paper is still not a good example of writing. Some examiners prefer to corrupt a well-written paper by the insertion of typical student blunders. When the errors are corrected, the original excellence is restored. Most examiners, however, prefer papers written by students, because the errors which students make go far beyond anything that a grammarian could duplicate. Artificial errors are relatively easy to correct; actual errors are often complex and baffling. Actual errors also have about them an air of reality which more than compensates for the loss of aesthetic satisfaction with the final product.

This form of writing test may also be criticized on the ground that it is a proofreading test rather than a writing test. We find that students who write well get high scores on these tests, and students who write badly get low scores. The correlations between scores on this form of test and the most careful marks on essays written on the same day by the same students usually range between .55 and .75. This is as high as the correlation between the marks on any two essays written by the same student. It is noteworthy that the more carefully the essays are marked, the higher is the correlation with the objective-test scores. This fact was discovered when two experienced readers marked the same set of essays four times: first on general impression, then on certain criteria, more and more carefully defined, until the marks of the two

readers approached perfect agreement. On the first reading the correlation of the objective scores with marks was .51. With each successive reading the correlation went up, and with the final reading it reached .75. Such correlations are rare in English testing.

Although experiments, frequently repeated, convinced the examiners that the objective writing test really measures the ability to write, students may also be asked to write a paper of their own as the third section of the examination. The inclusion of an original essay on the central theme of the examination is desirable on educational grounds; for it leads students who are preparing for the examination to practice writing, rather than to memorize the rules in a handbook of composition.

Each of the examinations prepared for the United States Armed Forces Institute was tried out in representative high schools and colleges in various sections of the country for the purpose of setting norms. These try-outs produced unexpected "fan mail." Teachers wrote in to inquire whether more tests of the same kind could be made available for teaching purposes. They reported that students would argue vehemently with one another over which were the right answers to some of the items, and the teachers suspected that these arguments did more to teach students the reasons underlying correct interpretations in reading and effective ways of writing than did the explanations presented by teachers or by textbooks.

A REMEDIAL ENGLISH COURSE

Although the examiners had never thought of using the tests as teaching devices, the continued demand forced them to consider the possibility. The possibility suddenly became an urgent need when the English program of the College of the University of Chicago was reorganized, and the examiner in English was put in charge of the remedial sections. He was given the summer of 1945 in which to prepare materials, which developed into thirty exercises of the sort just described. By this time he knew the types of items on reading and writing that were most frequently missed by students the country over, and he took care to include numerous examples of each type. He thought of calling the text "English Made Difficult" but compromised with his colleagues on the title, "Work in English."

The remedial course has now been in operation a little more than a year. It meets three hours a week. The first meeting is usually devoted to the reading exercise, the second to the writing exercise, and the third to the students' own papers and to supplementary exercises on vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, and spelling as needed. Not only is each week's work unified around a central theme, but the work of successive weeks is also joined by a thread of continuity.

The first five weeks, for example, deal with unsolved problems of home and family life in our society. The first exercise explores the possibilities in planned co-operative housing as one

way of solving the problems of young mothers who must work outside the home. An article on "Collective Living" by John Hyde Preston supplies information and ideas; provides an exercise in close, analytical reading; and illustrates a competent writer's treatment of the topic. The second exercise, called "The Backwardness of Women," asserts that men have eased their load and attained a more interesting life by their application of two basic principles: mechanization and division of labor. Women have made relatively little use of these beneficent principles in their own work but are still using a principle which men have all but discarded: slave labor, in the form of domestic help. After the girls' fury is further inflamed by a caustic passage from Elizabeth Hawes's *Why Women Cry*, students are asked to write an explanation of this cultural lag. The third exercise passes on to human relations within the home and uses a passage from Wells's *Ann Veronica* to illustrate certain tensions between parents and children. The fourth deals with the ways in which our present-day social habits frustrate and break up friendships, especially our nomadic habit of moving almost annually. This section uses excerpts from the Bacon and Emerson essays on friendship to stimulate thinking about the values which we miss. The last exercise in this group contrasts the pitiable status of old age in our society with Lin Yutang's account of the way in which the Chinese manage the latter part of life. Each group of

exercises is like this one, dealing with unsolved problems of our people, and inquiring what the next generation proposes to do about them. Although these tests are not available at present, it is expected that they will be published in book form sometime next year.

The kinds of questions asked about these materials may be illustrated by the following examples from the fourth exercise, based on excerpts from Bacon's and Emerson's essays on friendship.

1. Which of the following best represents the outline of the Bacon passage?

A —	I	E —	I	I —	I	O —	I
	II		II		II		II
	III		III		A		A
	IV				B		B
	V			III			C

2. In which of Bacon's "fruits" of friendship does the friend play the most active role? A — the first; E — the second as pictured in paragraphs 2 and 3; I — the second as pictured in paragraph 4; O — the third.

3. The first paragraph is developed by A — induction: reasoning from particular facts to a general statement; E — deduction: reasoning from a general statement to particular facts; I — analogy: reasoning that similar principles operate in similar circumstances; O — definition: explaining the meaning of key terms.

4. Which of the following words from paragraph 1 is NOT a good example of what is meant by "passions" in the second line of this paragraph? A — griefs; E — joys; I — suspicions; O — counsels.

5. In line 5 "affections" means A — love; E — kindness; I — sorrows; O — emotions.

The following kinds of questions on organization were first asked about

the student's paper which was used in the writing exercise.

1. This paper A — is highly unified; E — has two main points with no relationship between them clearly indicated; I — has three main points with no relationship between them clearly indicated; O — has no signs of organization at all.

2. The first paragraph contains A — a statement of the topic of the whole paper; E — a statement of the topic of the first six paragraphs; I — a statement of the topic of the first eight paragraphs; O — no topic statement at all.

3. Paragraph 2 is connected with paragraph 1 by A — "are"; E — "advantages of moving"; I — "new"; O — "friends."

4. Paragraph 6 A — continues the argument of paragraph 5; E — closes one loop-hole left by the argument of paragraphs 2-5; I — introduces the argument of paragraphs 6-9; O — is not related to either the preceding or the following section.

The following kinds of alternatives were suggested for the underlined portions of the student's paper, as shown at the bottom of the page.

1. A — In writing on "A Program for Friendship"; E — In writing on this subject I find that; I — This is not a good way to begin, but; O — Omit.

2. A — on many points put forth by; E — at many points with; I — with many points put forth by; O — as to many points expressed by.

3. A — my reference material; E — "A Program for Friendship"; I — "How Not To Make Friends"; O — the article in our textbook.

4. A — by moving as frequently as it is common these days; E — by moving as frequently as these days; I — by moving as frequently as is common these days (in its present position); O — by moving as frequently as is common these days (placed after "friends").

5. A — that they; E — they; I — Omit.

The chief problem in using these materials for teaching is the discrepancy between the number of items which students can prepare as home work and the number which can be discussed in class. Students can prepare fifty or sixty items in one hour at home, but they can discuss only ten or twelve in class. This problem was solved by using three-by-eight cards with the letters *A* and *E* printed on one side and *I* and *O* printed on the other. These letters, which are also used for the four responses to each item, were selected rather than the usual *A*, *B*, *C*, *D*, because it is difficult to distinguish *B* from *D* in classroom conversation. The instructor asks the answer to Item 1, and each student holds up the end of his card on which is printed the letter of the answer he has chosen. If most of the students agree on the right answer, the instructor simply names the right answer and passes on to the next item. However, if one faction wants the *A* response and another faction wants *E*, the instructor calls on a representa-

In writing on "A Program for Friendship" I disagree ¹ on many points put forth by ² the author of my reference material. He argues that people, by moving ³ as frequently as ⁴ it is common these days, ⁵ that they lose their friends.

tive of *A* to defend his answer and then on a representative of *E* to refute *A* and justify *E*. By this time other representatives of *A* are waving their arms, eager to demolish the fallacies of *E*, while the *E* faction closes its ranks and prepares for a last-ditch defense.

The instructor, though, must remain neutral, no matter how much he wants to enter the argument. His students have had fifteen or sixteen years of experience with the language and can argue one another into a reasonable solution of any clear-cut problem of interpretation or expression, if the instructor lets them. If he loses patience and simply explains the right answer, the students relapse into the usual passive classroom attitude and shift their burden to the teacher. It is the answers that they find for themselves which keep coming up as precedents in all further discussions. The function of the instructor is to keep steering the discussion toward basic principles which can be used again and again rather than toward *ad hoc* solutions to particular problems. In this way the instructor can teach grammar, in the true sense of an insight into the principles governing effective expression, without resorting to the usual futile review of the rules of grammar in a handbook of composition. The latter procedure has been tried time out of mind, always with the most discouraging results.

Students who have not yet learned to read rapidly are sent to a reading clinic in which some attention is paid

to the development of speed in reading. In the remedial classes themselves, no attention whatever is paid to speed. The clinics discovered about thirty years ago that they could produce spectacular gains in speed within a very short time, and to this day most of them do little else. They claim that they "hold comprehension constant," but their questions are usually too easy to prove comprehension beyond the level of knowing in general what each paragraph is about. He who runs may read *that* much. The gain in speed may come about partly because students learn to expect only the most superficial questions.

The Board of Examinations at the University gave speed-of-reading tests to all entering students for about fifteen years and then desisted, because in all that time they never found a correlation higher than .12 between speed of reading and marks in any subject. On the other hand, scores on a good test of reading comprehension, with really penetrating, analytical questions, have higher correlations with marks in all subjects than do any other measures used by the Board. The usual correlation is about .65, which is ten points higher than the correlation of the best available tests of general intelligence. It is obvious that comprehension is the point to attack, not speed. To be sure, there is an occasional student whose comprehension may be impeded by the fact that he reads one word at a time, although one always wonders which is cause and which is effect. However, even if ex-

cessive slowness is one barrier to comprehension, it is certainly not the only barrier; nor is increase in speed the only remedy. For every student who reads badly because he reads too slowly, there are ninety-nine who read badly because they have not learned all the complex, intricate thought-processes which go into the interpretation of literature. It is harder and takes longer to teach these processes than to increase speed, but any gain in this direction will really help students cope with their intellectual problems.

This conclusion is supported by the apparent effect that the kind of training just described has on success in college. There were sixty-seven students who completed at least one quarter of remedial work and who took at least three other comprehensive examinations in their first year in college. They were matched in initial scores on intelligence, reading, and writing tests with sixty-seven students who entered college a year earlier and who did not have the remedial treat-

ment. The experimental group failed thirty-one examinations, of which six were in the remedial course itself and merely signified that the treatment was not yet complete, and eight were in the following English course, in which these students attempted the examination, against the advice of their instructors, after completing only a part of the course. The other seventeen failures were in other subjects—for example, eight in mathematics, to which the contribution of the remedial course would necessarily be remote. The comparison group of the year earlier failed fifty-three examinations, of which ten were in English, three in mathematics, and forty in other subjects. While it would be rash to draw any final conclusions at this early stage of the new program, it seems a likely hypothesis that intensive training in the basic skills of interpretation and expression, of the sort described in this paper, will substantially decrease the chances of failure in college.

TOWARD AN UNDERSTANDING OF TRUANCY

RUSSELL J. FORNWALT
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THE average teacher's philosophy on truancy is a paradox. It is at once both definite and vague. It is definite with regard to the legal aspect but vague so far as understanding the factors that cause truancy is concerned. Reports from school and juvenile authorities and from law-enforcement officials show that truancy is increasing everywhere. However, there is no corresponding increase in a realistic understanding of the problem. With respect to causative factors, some teachers show complete disinterest and indifference.

This negative attitude is perfectly understandable for three reasons. First, largely because of tradition, truancy is regarded as a legal matter—something for the school's attendance bureau or truant officer to handle. The average teacher considers truancy a violation of attendance regulations and feels that his duty has ended when he reports cases of unlawful absence to a higher authority.

Second, teachers are generally so busy planning lessons, marking tests and papers, making reports, doing detailed clerical work, attending meetings, and sponsoring extra-curriculum activities that they have little time to

give to case studies of truants. No doubt many teachers would like to take more interest in their pupils' individual problems but simply do not have the time to do so.

Some attendance recording systems are so cumbersome and involved that, after the statistical work is done, little time remains for probing causes of illegal absence. It is expecting too much of any teacher to be statistician, public accountant, clerk, and social worker, in addition to being a teacher.

When the extra burdens that teachers must assume are considered, it seems only natural that in the matter of truancy they should follow the line of least resistance—check attendance and report irregularities to the school's principal. In fact, since truants represent only a small percentage of all the pupils, many teachers are likely to feel that it is a waste of time to bother too much with an aspect of school life in which so few children are involved.

✧ The third reason for teachers' indifference toward, and lack of interest in, truancy is that they do not desire to relate irregular attendance or truancy, however slight, to their own personalities, teaching abilities, and

teaching methods. However, the deeper the probing into the problem, the more apparent that relationship becomes. This fact is strongly indicated in the case histories of hundreds of maladjusted pupils, but it is seldom, if ever, admitted by their teachers.

Few members of any profession are willing to confess their own incompetence and shortcomings. Certainly every teacher wants to believe that he is doing his best, and it might be difficult, indeed, to convince him that there is any connection between his personality and pupil attendance. It is easier for him to adopt the point of view that truancy is a clerical and legal problem and thus absolve himself of any responsibility.

CAUSES OF TRUANCY

☞ In order to understand truancy, it is necessary to understand its causes. What makes a boy go "on the hook"? Is it because he enjoys fishing or swimming more than chemistry or history? Is it because other activities are more appealing than school? Or is it the result of a deep-seated urge to escape something? During the last three years, as vocational-guidance counselor for the Big Brother Movement in New York City, I have been trying to find honest answers to such questions.

Understanding the truant mind properly involves the power to distinguish between the external and the internal factors that cause truancy. Without doubt, certain conditions

outside the school are accountable for much irregular attendance. Increasing laxity in the home, unsettled economic conditions, employment, outside interests, and even the connivance of parents are often largely to blame. Are they solely responsible, however?

My work as a counselor for more than four hundred so-called "problem" boys, a large number of whom were referred to the Big Brother Movement because of truancy, has brought me to the almost inescapable conclusion that most unlawful absence stems from personality conflicts between teachers and pupils. External factors seem to be either secondary or superficial and serve merely as convenient alibis for those teachers and principals who do not, or will not, face the problem frankly.

Now, this conclusion is not an indictment against the entire teaching profession. Just as truants constitute a small part of the school population, so do those teachers whose personalities produce truancy fall into a minority group.

The first step toward a better understanding of truancy is to redefine the word itself. As long as the academic definition that truancy is "absence from school without leave" is accepted, little headway in solving the problem will be made. If school attendance is regarded as simply a matter of record-keeping and truancy as a violation of law, the adjustment of many problem children will never be effected.

CASE HISTORIES

Truancy may be "absence without leave" but seldom is it "absence without reason." For example, Johnny told me recently that he stays out of school because he resents being called a "big dope" by his algebra teacher. Johnny, a junior in high school, is a sensitive boy, but he is tremendously overgrown physically and not overly bright. He does not mind going to the blackboard to work problems, but he dislikes having the teacher make jibes at his size and ability. Johnny had not become a chronic truant until he had been assigned to this particular teacher. Neither his interest in algebra nor his general attitude toward school was helped by the teacher's humiliating tactics. Sympathetic understanding, not public ridicule, was the boy's principal need. Because of one teacher's limited mind, school became to Johnny a source of irritation rather than one of inspiration.

Teachers who subject their pupils to shame, sarcasm, name-calling, ridicule, and humiliation are directly responsible for more truancy than they realize. Johnny at least has the moral courage to remove himself physically from the classroom. Most pupils indulge only in mental truancy, or daydreaming, as a means of escaping an unpleasant atmosphere or of getting away from an irksome and meaningless routine. They tolerate an undesirable situation physically, lest they be shamed or humiliated further if they should become truants. It is

easy to keep one's body in the classroom while the mind is very much *in absentia*.

Hans developed a dislike for school because of the way in which his civics teacher conducted a straw vote. The teacher asked all members of the class whose parents favored candidate Roe to stand. About 90 per cent of the pupils arose, many of them with the realization that their doing so would please the teacher. Hans and one or two other boys stood for candidate Doe. They received a terrific tongue-lashing, and the teacher angrily demanded to know why their parents intended to vote for such a man.

If a teacher asks his pupils to express themselves on current economic, social, and political questions, their opinions should be honored and treated objectively. It is not within the teacher's province to foist his personal views on either the children or their parents. If he attempts to do so, conflicts are bound to result. Hans's truancy was simply an honest and justified protest.

Little Bobby, first-grade pupil, spoke out of turn in class. The teacher punished him by taking his eyeglasses for the remainder of the day. Bobby went home with a severe headache caused by eyestrain. He was afraid to tell his mother what had happened for fear of further punishment, but Mrs. Jones learned what had occurred from another parent. The teacher apologized after he had been lectured by the school's principal. However, apologies

did not compensate for the emotional shock which Bobby had suffered.

Bobby became "eyeglass conscious." He developed a dislike for school because of a teacher's lack of discretion and good judgment. His adjustment to school life was seriously retarded. No one knows what effects this cruel and unusual punishment had on Bobby's classmates. Young children often feel the sting of harsh discipline even though it is not applied directly to them. Bobby may become a potential truant through no fault of his own.

Then, there is the case of a seventh-grade teacher, who said to his class one Friday morning, "This afternoon I expect to have both poor eyesight and bad memory." His pupils, all boys between the ages of thirteen and fifteen, well knew the meaning of such "double-talk." To them it meant that they could take the afternoon off without being marked absent. Such a teacher is wantonly careless in checking attendance, and his attitude makes it difficult for other teachers who are conscientious about their work. Although there may not be many teachers of this type in the nation's schools, the few of them who are "teaching" are a handicap to the many others who want to do a good job. For a teacher deliberately to encourage slovenly attendance habits is far worse than truancy could ever possibly be.

Bruce is the type of boy who wears a perpetual smile. One day his teacher

punished another boy for laughing aloud in class. The teacher had the culprit stand in front of the class to do some more laughing. Bruce saw humor in the incident and also laughed aloud. His laughter greatly annoyed the teacher, who picked up a twelve-inch ruler and struck him several times across the mouth. Bruce was not only hurt emotionally but was also injured rather severely physically. For several days Bruce's parents had difficulty in getting him to go to school. The boy felt that he had been unduly penalized, lost interest in school, and no longer cared to do his home work. The situation improved only after he had been assigned to another teacher.

The question that might be raised in Bruce's case is this: Is it possible that teachers sometimes derive emotional satisfaction from punishing children? Some teachers and parents, too, argue that corporal punishment is the only "language" understood by the child. However true that may be, such punishment should never be the outlet for anyone's sadistic tendencies. The teacher's main consideration at all times must be the thing that will benefit the child most.

Bill has been a chronic truant for many years. In many instances his absences have not been reported. He has reached Grade VIII, but his scholastic achievement is equal only to the achievement of a pupil in Grade IV. Bill is promoted year after year, not because of his marks, but

because of his antics. He is a normal boy in every respect but is a continual source of irritation to his teachers. Because of his school's unique promotion policy, Bill is far ahead of himself academically. "The stuff is way over my head," he says, "and that's why I stay out of school so much." The boy is completely unprepared for the academic standards that are held up before him. His truancy is a protest against those standards.

Andrew, a mature-looking boy of fifteen, was put back a term for having caused a disturbance in class. The humiliation was more than Andrew could stand, and the results were prolonged periods of wilful absence and then dropping out of school entirely when he reached sixteen.

SUMMARY COMMENTS

Dozens of boys are anxiously awaiting the day on which they can leave school officially. In reviewing their case histories, I find that truancy is definitely an escape mechanism. It originates in an urge to get *away* from something rather than a desire to get *to* anything. Many boys do absolutely nothing purposeful with their "stolen" leisure. As a matter of fact, in most cities they are not allowed to work or to attend the movies while school is in session, and they then have the alternatives of staying at home, visiting with other truants, engaging in hobbies, or, worst of all, becoming involved in serious offenses against the law and society.

In most cases it is the teacher's personality from which the pupil desires to escape. Seldom does a pupil skip classes because of textbooks or because of the inadequacy of the school's physical facilities. School life is what the teacher makes it; for the individual teacher has it within his power to mold a child's attitude. Even like or dislike for a certain subject, experience has shown, may be bound up with the teacher's personality and his method of presentation.

Of course it is a large order to expect one teacher to appeal to the 150 or 200 boys and girls whom he meets daily. Then, too, the average teacher does not have time to take a genuine personal interest in every pupil. If truancy is to be checked, however, school programs must provide time for teachers to assume personal interest in the chronic absentees. Teachers, individually and collectively, must regard truancy as their affair.

While truancy may be a minor problem in most schools, it is not a problem with minor consequences. Truancy itself may be relatively harmless, but the attitudes that accompany, and the habits that may result from, continual spells of truancy are not always harmless. Workers in the Big Brother Movement, as well as those in many other agencies that serve youth, are constantly made aware of the fact that truancy is the first step on the downward path. It is unfortunate, indeed, that truancy is almost universally considered a vir-

tual crime, since that attitude is defeating the opportunity of arriving at a better understanding and a solution of the problem. It makes truancy merely a matter for the attendance clerk and the truant officer, neither of whom is trained for, or inclined to do, individual case work.

The increasing prevalence of truancy points up the need for greater co-operation between social-work agencies and the schools. In most of our

larger cities and towns, there are social agencies which have the resources and personnel to do individual work with maladjusted boys and girls. Often the social worker can lead the teacher to a better understanding of a child's difficulties. When teachers come to have a more sympathetic understanding of their pupils' needs, personality conflicts will be fewer, and the number of truancy cases will diminish.

SHALL WE TEACH THE STATUS SYSTEM?

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*

TODAY anthropology, psychology, and sociology have united to give us a new understanding of the dependence of the individual on his group and of the influence of the group on the individual. Such an understanding involves relating the individual to a dozen major groups—family, neighborhood, region, nation, and world; school, clique, church, club, association, and vocation; age and sex groups. How is the individual affected and formed by his complex of groups?

For the social-studies teacher, no attempt to answer this question has had more significance than the method of identifying an individual in terms of his many group memberships through the analysis of the status system in American society (9, 10, 11). This method has helped teachers to gain new insight into a hundred situations, both from history and from contemporary human relations. The question now for teachers of the social studies is the extent to which they have an obligation to share this insight with their students.

What will it mean to students if they understand the origin of differences between social classes and the conditions that tend to maintain and even to stratify these differences?

What will it mean to students if they understand the ways in which an individual's behavior is formed by his group associations?

What will it mean to students if they are made aware of the barriers that are to be overcome in achieving social mobility?

What will it mean to students if they understand the need for common agreement and action to create greater opportunities for all citizens in a democracy to share in the common cultural wealth?

With a questioning of the value of helping students to gain this particular kind of insight, there must go as well some doubt as to the possibility of teaching the status system successfully. It is possible that teachers do not always feel themselves adequately prepared to interpret the complexities of social classification.¹ Again, they may believe that any less-than-expert handling of the subject is open to a number of misinterpretations that might have unhappy consequences. For example, they do not want their students to conclude that

¹ The Bibliography appearing at the end of this article is an attempt to select the primary sources needed for an understanding of the theory of the status system.

belonging to a less advantaged class imposes handicaps of such size that attempts at self-improvement must end in frustration. Neither do they want students to decide that the particularly gifted alone can receive rewards in our society nor that there is a fixed correlation between birth and brains.

Despite their questioning both of the value of teaching the concept of the status system and of their success in teaching it, teachers are not reflecting only; they are searching for answers to their own doubts. Where in the regular social-studies courses, they are wondering, can such new emphases be tested? Where in the study of the community could parts of the concept be clarified? Where in the study of American history? Of world history? Can the entire concept be pulled together and taught directly to older students?

The unit that follows suggests a way of organizing materials on the status system for teaching them to twelfth-grade students. The organization is in the form of activities—some introductory, some developmental, others summary in nature—combined around five strands of the concept:

1. How do social classes differ?
2. To what extent does the class into which an individual is born tend to determine his behavior?
3. What may make it difficult for an individual to move from one class to another?
4. What trends in American life are decreasing or altering class differences?
5. What role ought the public school play in relation to social mobility?

The content of the unit is inherent in the activities, and an attempt has been made to choose activities that will bring out the major phases of the concept in terms of the student objectives set forth. In general, the approach may be characterized as one of self-analysis and community analysis.

Whether the status system in American society is teachable in this form and at this time is a question that the writer regards as properly debatable. The chief value of presenting the unit may lie in the assistance that it will give teachers in defining the significance that understanding the concept may have for citizens in a democratic society.

OBJECTIVES FOR THE UNIT

An informed citizen of the United States should:

1. Understand the origin and maintenance of the differences between social classes.
2. Understand the group influences that tend to determine the pattern of behavior for individuals born into any class.
3. Recognize the barriers against moving upward that arise from different opportunities as well as from different modes of behavior.
4. Be aware of, appreciate, and take advantage of the ways in which the democratic community creates opportunities for sharing in the common cultural wealth through schools, museums, libraries, hospitals, and other social institutions.
5. Work to broaden these community opportunities and to encourage full use of them.
6. Understand that one of the functions of the school in a democracy is to provide a free and open pathway to the acquisition of training that will enable all citizens to make their maximum contribution to society.
7. Work to insure that the school provides

a free and open pathway for all the children of his community.

8. Realize that class differences tend to become barriers between classes and resolve, therefore, to work to provide ways through which a democratic society can decrease differences and increase mobility by (a) increasing the income of all citizens, (b) increasing the commonly shared cultural wealth of the community, and (c) granting the major rewards to those citizens who contribute most significantly to the common welfare.

ACTIVITIES FOR THE UNIT

1. *How do social classes differ?*

Students may investigate the thesis that every society has within it some kind of classification. They may read about, and make reports on, the differences between our society and that of an Indian tribe; between our society and Russia's; and between our society and Great Britain's. Students may study together the ladder of classification as presented by Warner [9: 88].

From their reading and experience, students may attempt to distinguish the differences in status systems in various kinds of communities within the United States: New England, Southern, Mid-Western, and Western; rural and urban; small town and metropolis.

Students may attempt, through discussion, to characterize one social class, perhaps the "upper-upper," in terms of (1) behavior, (2) groups to which members belong, and (3) expectations. Then as an individual written exercise, each student might submit descriptions of other social classes. These discussions would be edited and presented for discussion.

Students may survey American history for instances of class interaction, such as is found in the post-Revolutionary and Jacksonian periods.

From their understanding of the class hierarchy, students may try to define the possible placement of either a rich man or a

poor man; that is, what else would need to be known besides his income to place him properly?

Students may interview parents and neighbors to collect geographical or residential phrases that express class differences—"Snob Hollow," "Shack Town," etc.

A committee may investigate the possibility of the presence of a class hierarchy among school clubs, organizations, and activities. Results might be presented in graphic form.

Students may poll members of other social-studies classes to get anonymous responses to the question: "To which social class do you belong, upper, middle, or lower?" Such self-identifications might then be compared to the percentages estimated from the data on the local or school community.

As a summary activity for this section, students may draw up a list of the key aspects of class differentiation and test their grasp of these differences by some kind of committee-prepared matching quiz. Example: "Identify the following activities by the class for which they are most characteristic: (1) spending the winter in California, (2) going to work at 7 A.M., (3) belonging to service clubs."

2. *To what extent does the social class into which an individual is born tend to determine his behavior?*

Students may try to analyze the social inheritance of the individual by answering the following question separately and then compiling the results through committee summary: "What does a child inherit socially by being born into any family?"

Students may wish to collect statistics correlating the vocations of sons and fathers. The assistance of other social-studies classes might be enlisted to get anonymous data. A form such as the following might be used: "What is your father's occupation? His father's? Your vocational choice?"

Students may collect symbols of the con-

cern that families have for their past. Attention may be given the significance of heirlooms, genealogies, albums, family documents, etc.

Analyses of popular magazine stories or novels by writers like Kathleen Norris, Faith Baldwin, and Temple Bailey may be used to locate the points of conflict that are supposed to arise when members of different social classes fall in love or marry.

Self-analysis and interviews with other students on the controls of sets, cliques, or gangs to which young persons belong may help to clarify the concept of group behavior.

A committee may collect evidence of different ways of bringing up children as far as the exercise of outright controls is concerned: supervision of leisure, selection of friends, etc. This report might pose certain problems for discussion: How do these differences tend to form different sets of personal values? Why do some parents expect greater submission from their children than other parents do?

Speakers from social-welfare, recreational, or juvenile divisions of the community government may be invited to discuss questions framed by the class regarding the differences found among youths in apparent respect for law and property, kinds of aggressive behavior, and protection afforded by parents.

In summary, a committee may prepare a presentation of the differences in training required for various kinds of occupations, ranging from the unskilled to the highly professional. The committee may indicate, for discussion, questions that involve the kind of family-backing, both in money and in upbringing, that is necessary for making it possible for a youth to devote himself to prolonged training and for making him willing to do so. Charts or graphs might be used to present relevant data.

3. *What may make it difficult for an individual to move from one class to another?*

Students who have understood that social behavior is learned in large part from family and clique associations will be able to ex-

amine some of the areas in which separate living keeps subordinate classes from having the maximum opportunity to learn the behavior patterns of upper groups. One such area is that of residential class clustering. Students may interview real-estate dealers or invite one to speak before the class. Buyer awareness of the connection that residential location has to class status might be brought out, as well as the way in which building restrictions of all kinds tend to maintain social distances.

Methods of transportation provide another area related to separation of social classes that may be studied by a committee or by the class. What is the attitude of the different social classes toward using public transportation? What is the prestige rating of various makes of automobiles? Why is the chauffeur a familiar symbol of class status?

Students may choose several occupations of high prestige, such as medicine and science, and investigate the requirements for training that might tend to exclude many persons of low income status.

Students may discuss, or perhaps dramatize, what has been called the "vicious circle": low income, low expectation of reward from education, inability to remain in school, going to work at an early age, early marriage and family responsibilities, low income, etc.

The language and cultural isolation of some ethnic groups may be studied as a specific kind of barrier to social mobility. Students may present the pattern of assimilation that has prevailed in those ethnic groups in which work and educational opportunities have not been denied to the members. A survey of the local community may provide case studies of groups and may lead to the procuring of speakers from ethnic minorities.

The problem of attaining social mobility in the face of color caste lines may be analyzed in connection with this phase of the status system. Reports of readings, speakers from the minority communities, and the

showing of films might contribute to an understanding of how the lack of opportunities for decent living, good education, and well-paying jobs encourages the maintenance of caste separation and, consequently, sequesters most racial minorities in the lower class.

A committee may co-operate with the school librarian to prepare a list of novels dealing with class interaction and social mobility. Some of these books might be reviewed for class discussion.

As a final activity for this section, students may summarize the psychological barriers that might result from the environment of an individual and might tend to keep him from expecting, or even wanting, to improve himself.

4. *What trends in American life are decreasing or altering class differences?*

Figures on the rise of the educational level in the United States, as found in categories such as illiteracy, school enrolment, and college attendance, may be collected and put into graphic form.

A committee may organize material in similar fashion to show the rise and spread of income in the United States.

A discussion of institutions, such as libraries and museums, which are provided by public support may point out the democratic basis for self-improvement. A community survey and the setting-up of a program of local improvement might follow.

A committee may analyze the wide availability of models for improved social behavior which can be found in films, books, and magazines. Magazines of various levels of quality might be surveyed for the social situations and conflicts presented.

The significance of the growth of the labor movement as directed toward improving the income and political awareness of the worker may be considered by a student panel or presented by an outside speaker.

The history of taxation of incomes and inheritances may be reported, with a discussion of the changes that have accompanied

the distribution of wealth through public planning.

The place of political action by all citizens for the purpose of satisfying their common wants may be analyzed. Perhaps the class might make a list of which social needs of the majority it considers might best be met through government action.

Such a project might be directed toward the drawing-up of a set of standards for decent living toward which all persons in a democracy should be able to look with hope of realization.

Students may formulate their individual ideas concerning which types of contribution to the public good should receive highest recognition from their society.

In summary, the community may be surveyed in terms of its clubs and other organizations. What classes are represented in different associations? What are the ways in which these associations are used by members to achieve prestige in the community? Which associations cut across the entire community? Who exercises control in such groups? How do such associations serve to integrate the social classes within the community?

5. *What role has the public school to play in relation to social mobility?*

In terms of its basic tenets and their realization, the democratic ideal of free education may be examined. Reports on the history of public education in the United States and programs of general education as currently proposed may be included.

Students may conduct a round-table discussion of such basic purposes of education in a democracy as (1) inducting youth into citizenship, (2) locating and training the best brains for the common good, and (3) sharing the cultural riches of our society with all its members.

Committees may collect and present evidence of popular interest in adult education. Such evidence can be found in the self-help advertisements in popular and lower-class magazines, in the literature of book clubs,

and in the number of opportunities available for adult education in the community.

A survey may be made of the incidental costs of attending public high school. This survey might include (1) figures on the number of students who work while attending school, and (2) reports on scholarships which are now available, as well as on the scholarships which could formerly be obtained through the National Youth Administration.

Reports on the G.I. Bill of Rights may be made by students or school officials, with consideration given to the implications for the future of the practice of granting federal scholarships.

The school may be surveyed for courses that include units on manners and grooming that might be interpreted as meeting the needs of the students who wish to learn the behavior of social classes other than their own.

The school may also be surveyed for opportunities presented for youths from disadvantaged homes to become acquainted with the cultural riches of music, art, and literature.

A committee may prepare for discussion an analysis of the problems connected with meeting the needs of all students without depriving the disadvantaged of the person-to-person education that comes through association. What kinds of groupings are permissible? How do vocational courses separate students?

From their study of the role of the school in a democratic society, students may, as a final activity, outline the purposes of education and propose a program to achieve these purposes for all.

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* Signifies that item is considered to be of major significance.

THE EVALUATION OF EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES

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AFTER seven years, three of which were spent in military service, I returned to summer school and enrolled in courses in secondary education. I was somewhat surprised and quite disappointed to receive a "re-hash" of the materials which were being presented in education courses when I took my first one in 1922.

At present the Harvard Report,¹ the Cooperative Study,² and the report of the Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*³ are receiving intense attention. Just what do these studies contribute to educational thought? What is included in any one of them that was not included either directly or by implication in the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*⁴ or the principles

advanced by Spencer, Inglis, Bobbitt, and Koos many years ago? A comparison of the philosophy and objectives of education which are included in these earlier statements with the principles set forth in more recent reports reveals no appreciable differences.

Let us look at some of the "new" techniques. Since 1922 I have been indoctrinated with the theory that the traditionally organized school has been a failure and that it should be replaced with a school that offers a "core curriculum," a "child-centered program," an "activity" organization, or some other "modernized" program. Allow me to say here that I accept the theory that these newer techniques are more effective than the traditional practices, the chief aim of which was to prepare pupils for college entrance. Although many of these "new" techniques have been with us for more than fifteen years, it is said that the traditionally organized school still predominates in American secondary education. Can it be that the American public just will not accept better methods in education? Or can it be

¹ *General Education in a Free Society*. Report of the Harvard Committee. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1945.

² *Evaluation of Secondary Schools: General Report on the Methods, Activities, and Results of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards*. Washington: Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, 1939.

³ Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1944.

⁴ *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education: A Report of the Commission on the Reorganization*

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that the public is not convinced that the newer practices are better? The public accepted nylon hose in place of cotton, silk, and rayon stockings. It accepted the social-security program and workmen's compensation.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF EDUCATION

Few persons would deny that education should train youth for better home membership, economic efficiency, social competence, civic responsibility, worthy use of leisure time, and physical efficiency. Surely the American public would demand educational reform if it were convinced that the newer practices produced these outcomes more effectively than do the older techniques.

Why have educators failed to concern themselves with presenting concrete data to show that the modern methods are better? Why must the public depend upon subjective estimates for evidence that the modern methods are better? At present the public is expected to accept the new type of school because educators believe that the new school is better or hope that it is better.

A few studies have aimed to produce objective evidence, but they have not been convincing. Wrightstone made such an attempt,⁵ and in his report he concludes that "the evidence already secured gives a fairly reliable basis for prediction that in comparison with standard-type prac-

tices, the newer-type practices will produce equal or superior pupil achievement in desirable skills, knowledges, attitudes, personal and social adjustments, and character traits."⁶ He admits, however, that his sampling of pupils was too limited to allow final conclusions. Then, too, his tools for measuring the outcomes of instruction are subject to criticism. He measured the "intellectual factors" (mental content and skills) by giving achievement and intelligence tests. The "dynamic factors" (desires, motives, attitudes, opinions, etc.) were also measured with pencil-and-paper techniques. As all teachers are aware, the fact that a student expresses a socially desirable opinion or attitude in writing does not necessarily imply that his actions in real situations are consistent with his written expression. Finally, the "performance factors" were measured by extremely subjective techniques, namely, teachers' ratings of observed performance in school situations. Teachers' ratings have never been considered as possessing a high degree of validity, and we have little evidence that "in-school" performance in social situations is correlated to any marked degree with out-of-school performance in similar situations.

Surely more valid proof of a concrete nature can be secured. Studies could be made in the field by doctoral candidates or evaluating committees to produce facts which the public will accept.

⁵ J. Wayne Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Newer Practices in Selected Public Schools*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 115.

COMMUNITY STUDIES

Let us take two hypothetical communities as a basis for such a study. Central City has a school system of the newer type. It changed from the older traditional organization about fifteen years ago. During this period it has sent thousands of students into the community which it serves. Many of these students are still in the community. They represent a large proportion of its population. Miles Junction is a city very much like Central City. It is of about the same size and is located in a similar geographical area, its industries are much like those of Central City, and its population is very similar and is no more mobile. Miles Junction, however, still has a school system that is organized in the traditional mold.

If the educational program of Central City's schools is a more effective means of producing the desirable outcome of education than is that of Miles Junction, then a sociological study of the two communities served by such different school systems should reflect the superiority of Central City's educational techniques. Its citizens might be expected to evidence a higher degree of civic competence than those of Miles Junction. For example, it seems reasonable to suppose that they would accept jury service more willingly, that a larger proportion of them would vote in its elections, and that their votes would not follow the "party line" as closely as the votes in Miles Junction. Its officials should be less susceptible to graft and

to political corruption. Certainly no political "machine" should be running the city. One would also expect to find that the citizens of Central City are more active in civic affairs, belong to more civic organizations, and participate more extensively in other desirable community activities. The community surveys should disclose that health and welfare services in Central City are better, that there have been fewer epidemics, that the streets are not only much cleaner but also that the citizens take more interest in beautifying them. It might also be observed that the citizens take more pride in the appearance of their homes and public buildings. Furthermore, the divorce rate in Central City should be the lower because of the influence of the superior social orientation of its high-school students. Its young people should rely less on "beer parlors," "juke joints," and gambling "dives" for their recreation and should show a preference for desirable out-of-school activities for which they were trained in school. As a result, there would be much less crime and juvenile delinquency in Central City. Moreover, its record today with respect to such aspects of community life should be much better than it was fifteen years ago when it, too, had a school system organized along traditional lines.

Comparative studies of socially significant aspects of community life and enterprise in cities of different sizes and constituency might well yield the

convincing facts and generalizations that could lead to a general awakening of interest in the relative values of the old and the modernized conceptions of the way to achieve this nation's accepted educational objectives. If these newer practices are as well conceived as we believe them to be, such studies should produce the evidence which we need to convince those persons who control the educational system and who hold the purse strings that the

newer types of educational practices are not only desirable but are necessary for the survival of the American way of life.

Let us spend less time and money on making periodic studies that merely restate accepted educational philosophies, objectives, and techniques and use these resources for an objective evaluation of what can be accomplished when such techniques are put into practice.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY- SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

II. THE SUBJECT FIELDS

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THE same grouping of subject fields is being followed for the lists of references in the February and March numbers of the *School Review* as was used in the cycles of lists published during 1933-46, inclusive. The concept of "instruction" is also the same and includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement. In each subject field the list includes items published during a period of approximately twelve months since the preparation of the list appearing last year.

ENGLISH¹

DORA V. SMITH

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¹ See also Item 38 (Levenson) and Item 48 (Woelfel and Tyler) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1946, number of the *School Review*; Item 96 (Brown) in the February, 1946, number, Item 20 (Leonard) and Item 31 (Blair) in the January, 1947, number of the same journal; Item 449 (Greene and Gray), Item 476 (Fessenden), Item 492 (Witty), and Item 529 (Taba and Van Til) in the October, 1946, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

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69. GLICKSBERG, CHARLES I. "Practical Logic in the Classroom," *English Journal*, XXXV (January, 1946), 14-21.

Urges greater emphasis in the classroom on practical logic and judgment leading to the formation of conclusions and the making of decisions.

70. HANDLAN, BERTHA. "The Fallacy of Free Reading as an Approach to Appreciation," *English Journal*, XXXV (April, 1946), 182-88.

Gives evidence from undirected reading of tenth-grade students exposed to books of known values.

71. HATFIELD, W. WILBUR. "Literature for Personal Growth," *Elementary English Review*, XXIII (April, 1946), 149-53, 156.

Makes a plea for the choice and the handling of literature for its effects on the hearts and intellects of the readers.

72. JONES, PAUL A. "Teaching Techniques in English," *Review of Educational Research*, XVI (April, 1946), 133-38.

Gives a summary of teaching techniques, supplemented by practical knowledge gained by the author in the educational program used by the Navy.

73. KNOWER, FRANKLIN H. "Communication Skills: Composition, Listening, Radio, Speech, and Related Areas," *Review of Educational Research*, XVI (April, 1946), 116-32.

Reviews research of the last three years in communication skills in speech, writing, radio, and related areas.

74. LA BRANT, LOU. "Teaching High-School Students To Write," *English Journal*, XXXV (March, 1946), 123-28.

Discusses convincingly a program of writing based on student responsibility for what is said and for improvement of form in the course of writing.

75. "Make Youth Discussion Conscious: A Handbook on Discussion Techniques for School Forums, Class Discussions, and Youth Groups." Columbus, Ohio: Junior Town Meeting League (400 South Front Street) [no date]. Pp. 32. Describes in simple graphic form for high-school teachers and pupils discussion techniques fostered by the Junior Town Meeting.

76. MIDDLEBROOK, L. RUTH. "Teaching Young America To Write," *American Mercury*, LXII (April, 1946), 419-25.

Presents refreshingly experiences in teaching Freshman English in college to very ordinary and human students.

77. MOORE, ROBERT H. *General Semantics in the High-School English Program*. Graduate School Studies, Education Series, No. 1. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1945. Pp. viii+170.

Reviews theories of semantics presented by eminent linguists and urges greater use of them in high-school teaching.

78. NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH. "The Role of Speech in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIX (November, 1945), 9-169.

This single volume by leaders in the National Association of Teachers of Speech presents recent trends and directives concerning speech in the secondary school.

79. NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. "An Initial Statement of Platform for the Curriculum Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English." Dora V. Smith, Angela M. Broening, and Porter G. Perrin, directors. Chicago: National Council of Teachers of English, 1946. Pp. 36 (mimeographed).

States the platform on which the curriculum study of the National Council of Teachers of English will be based.

80. NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. "The Emerging Curriculum in English in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (February, 1946), 5-182.

Presents the most recent definitive statement on the curriculum in English by leaders in the National Council.

81. PAUL, WILSON B.; SORESENSEN, FREDERICK; and MURRAY, ELWOOD. "A Functional Core for the Basic Commu-

nications Course," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXII (April, 1946), 232-44. Describes the Freshman course in communication at Denver University, with its base in the psychological and social adjustment of young people.

82. POOLEY, ROBERT C. *Teaching English Usage*. National Council of Teachers of English, English Monograph No. 16. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1946. Pp. xii+266.

Brings linguistic scholarship to bear upon understanding of the growth of language with specific recommendations for teaching in the elementary and secondary schools.

83. POOLEY, ROBERT C. "These Things Shall Not Pass," *English Journal*, XXXV (February, 1946), 76-82.

Makes a plea for recognition of the importance of the language arts in secondary-school curriculums today.

84. ROSENBLATT, LOUISE M. "Toward a Cultural Approach to Literature," *College English*, VII (May, 1946), 459-66.

Discusses a procedure for helping students meet the impact of cultural differences, recognize the cross-fertilization of cultures, and develop standards of evaluation based upon democratic ideals which break away from distorting national compartmentalization.

85. ROSENBLATT, LOUISE M. (guest editor). "Intercultural Education Issue," *English Journal*, XXXV (June, 1946), 285-362.

Presents valuable information and suggestions for intercultural education through secondary-school English.

86. SMITH, DORA V. "The English Curriculum in Perspective," *College English*, VII (March, 1946), 334-43.

Offers suggestions for balance and continuity in language-arts programs based on the processes of communication through reading, writing, speaking, and listening important in the world today.

87. WALCOTT, FRED G. "To Lighten the Teacher's Burden," *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, XVII (February, 1946), 70-74.
Describes methods of decreasing the teacher's load by giving pupils more responsibility for carrying on well-motivated enterprises.
88. WAMPLER, RICHARD L., and GARRISON, KARL C. "Annotated Bibliography of Popular Literature Related to the Adolescent Age," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XXIII (July, 1945), 18-23.
Offers a tentative list of fiction and biography revealing the problems of adolescents.
89. WITTY, PAUL, and LA BRANT, LOU. *Teaching the People's Language*. Service Center Pamphlet of the American Education Fellowship. New York: Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge, Inc. 1945. Pp. 36.
Makes a vigorous plea for the teaching of living language in relation to its use in America today.
91. ANDERSON, HOWARD R., FORSYTH, ELAINE, and MORSE, HORACE T. "The Measurement of Understanding in the Social Studies," *The Measurement of Understanding*, pp. 71-103. Forty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1946.
Illustrates ways of testing for twelve general objectives of the social studies.
92. BARTON, EDWIN M., and ROBINSON, GEORGE B. *How To Make a Bulletin Board Effective*. How To Do It Series, No. 4. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1945. Pp. 6.
Discusses kinds of bulletin boards and suitable materials.
93. BAUGH, KATHERYNE E. "A Semester Course in Current Problems," *Social Studies*, XXXVII (May, 1946), 216-22.
Lists objectives, activities, and useful references for a nine-unit course.
94. "Bibliography of Social Studies Courses of Study," *School Life*, XXIX (November, 1946), 14-25.
Annotated list of 130 social-studies courses.
95. BRADLEY, MARY EDITH. "A Study of the Validity of the Armed Forces Institute Tests of General Educational Development in the Field of Social Studies," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, VI (Summer, 1946), 265-68.
A study of one hundred cases in a women's college indicates significant correlation between scores on the test named and grade-point averages but no such correlation with hours of work in the social studies nor with grade placement.

THE SOCIAL STUDIES²

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Regular departments such as "Sight and Sound in Social Studies" have not been included in this list.

90. ANDER, O. FRITIOF. "What about Teaching the History of Illinois in Our Public Schools?" *Journal of the Illinois State Historical Society*, XXXIX (June, 1946), 196-207.
A program for facilitating the study of state and local history.

² See also Item 602 ("The Study of Intergroup Relations") in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1945, number of the *Elementary School Journal*, Item 410 (Townsend) in the September, 1946, number, Item 521 (Giles, Pitkin, and Ingram), Item 528 (Sachs), Item 529 (Taba and Van Til) in the October, 1946, number, and Item 14 (Todd) in the January, 1947, number of the same journal.

96. BRUNNER, EDMUND DE S. "The Role of Social Science in the American Scene," *Teachers College Record*, XLVII (April, 1946), 416-29.
States that "the generalizations of the social scientist, in areas where he has the data to make them, . . . have predictive value;

- and that the failure of society to give them due weight has caused great loss and suffering."
97. BUCHANAN, JAMES H. "The Danger in Reading History Backwards," *Educational Forum*, X (November, 1945), 69-74.
Maintains that "teaching history backwards" leads pupils to misunderstand the nature of past controversies, to believe that "whatever is, is right," and to overlook "trial-and-error" process of institutional growth.
 98. BURKHARDT, RICHARD W. "What Do Students Know about Russia?" *Teachers' Digest*, VI (May, 1946), 54-57.
Reprint from *Peabody Reflector* (January, 1946) reports that high-school Seniors' ignorance of Russia is slightly less in the Middle West than in the East or West.
 99. CARTWRIGHT, WILLIAM H. *How To Use a Textbook*. How To Do It Series, No. 2. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1945. Pp. 6.
Stresses tool character of textbook and skills to be learned in using it.
 100. *Charting Intercultural Education, 1945-55*. Report of the Summer 1945 Workshop on Intercultural Education Sponsored by the Stanford University School of Education and the West Coast Office of the Bureau for Intercultural Education. By the Staff of the Stanford Workshop on Intercultural Education. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1946. Pp. 58.
Defines the good citizen, discusses five major issues, and makes practical suggestions on school and community procedures for intercultural education.
 101. CLEMENCE, RICHARD V. "Introductory Economics in the Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XVI (March, 1946), 320-22.
Suggests revisions to teach students how to make intelligent independent judgments on economic problems.
 102. *Consumer Education and the Social Studies: A Statement Prepared for the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals by a Committee Representing the National Council for the Social Studies*. Washington: Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1945. Pp. 24.
Analyzes nature and purposes of consumer education and suggests content and methods appropriate to the social studies.
 103. DUBOIS, RACHEL DAVIS. *Build Together Americans*. New York: Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge, 1945. Pp. xviii+270.
Admirable statement of theory of intercultural education with detailed examples of successful procedures in assemblies, classrooms, guidance, and school-community relations.
 104. EDMAN, MARION. "If It's Know-how You're After," *Educational Leadership*, IV (October, 1946), 34-43.
Evaluates fifteen types of intercultural education, giving most attention to the "contributions," "precept," and "American dilemma" approaches.
 105. "Education for Improved Community Life," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (May, 1946), 3-90.
Theory and practice of economic education in a core curriculum.
 106. ENGLISH, W. FRANCIS. "Missouri Schools and Missouri's New Constitution," *Social Education*, IX (December, 1945), 361-63.
Tells how the movement for a new constitution stimulated the study of state history and government.
 107. FERRELL, FRANCES HUNTER. "An Experiment in the Development of Critical Thinking," *American Teacher*, XXX (January, 1946), 24-25.

- Describes senior high school United States history course in which emphasis has shifted (1) from secondary to source material and (2) from the acquisition of information to its interpretation and evaluation.
108. FRAZIER, ALEXANDER. "Teaching World Citizenship: The New Realism," *Social Education*, X (March, 1946), 111-14.
Warns against "fancy dress" internationalism, uncritical "good will," utopianism, and absorption in organizational technicalities. Outlines units on culture, race, and economics.
109. GATES, JOHN W. "The Civic Competence of High-School Seniors," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXIX (March, 1946), 528-34.
Research study indicates a distinct connection between academic ability in areas of civic information and willingness to accept civic responsibility.
110. GLICKSBERG, CHARLES I. "Human Aspects of the Race Problem," *School Review*, LIV (November, 1946), 522-29.
Argues for case-study method in educational attack upon race prejudices.
111. GRAY, DOROTHY, and MIEL, ALICE. "A Laboratory for Social Studies," *School Executive*, LXV (July, 1946), 44-45.
Detailed suggestions, with floor plan, for a fully equipped social-studies laboratory.
112. HAAS, LEONARD. "The Status of the Social Studies in Wisconsin Secondary Schools," *Social Education*, X (May, 1946), 213-16.
Tabulates courses offered and required; indicates grade placement; reveals significant facts on preparation and class assignments of social-studies teachers.
113. HABBERTON, WILLIAM. "What Shall We Do with World History?" *Social Education*, X (January, 1946), 17-19.
Specific suggestions for incorporating essential new content into the one-year world-history course.
114. HARTLEY, WILLIAM A. *How To Use a Motion Picture*. How To Do It Series, No. 1. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1945. Pp. 8.
Discusses types and sources of films and methods of use.
115. HAWKINSON, ELLA A. *How To Use Local History*. How To Do It Series, No. 3. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1945. Pp. 6.
Discusses values and methods, stressing skills, interests, and activities.
116. HOWLAND, McCLURE MEREDITH. "A Report on the Survey Made by the Society of Mayflower Descendants in the State of New York on the Teaching of American History in New York Universities and Colleges," *Education*, LXVI (October, 1945), 80-84.
Does *not* conclude that making the study of our national history compulsory in college is necessarily desirable.
117. JAMES, FRANCIS GODWIN. "A New Kind of National History," *Social Education*, X (February, 1946), 55-59.
Suggests broadening United States history to see "national development as an integral part of global development."
118. JEFFERY, EBER W. "Military History in High School History," *Social Studies*, XXXVI (December, 1945), 340-44.
Suggests topics for study of a very neglected area of high-school social studies.
119. JUDD, CHARLES H. *Teaching the Evolution of Civilization*. Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series. New York: Macmillan Co., 1946. Pp. xiv+138.
Argues for making evolution of civilization central in junior high school social studies. Exemplifies approach from Santa Barbara, California, curriculum.
120. KALF, EARL S. "The Study of American Problems through the Use of the Unit Studies of the North Central Association and Supplementary Mate-

rials," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXI (October, 1946), 245-53.

Comments on each of a number of problems. Adds references and pupil activities.

121. KEOHANE, ROBERT E. "United States History for Upper-Group Students of High-School Age," *Social Education*, X (April, 1946), 157-62.

Describes course which is concerned primarily with creative ideas in American history and which is taught in the College of the University of Chicago.

122. KING, A. K. "From History to Social Studies in the Secondary School," *High School Journal*, XXIX (January-February, 1946), 9-19.

An able review of the work of national committees in this subject area, from 1892 to 1937.

123. KINGSBURY, FORREST A. "Psychology in the Education of Social Science Teachers," *Social Education*, X (May, 1946), 208-12.

Stresses the need for sound psychological training of teachers of the social sciences. Lists commonly believed errors.

124. MAHONEY, JOHN J. *For Us the Living: An Approach to Civic Education*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1945. Pp. viii+344.

A detailed discussion of the need for, and the aims, content and procedures of, an effective civic education.

125. MAINS, FRANCES. "World History and English," *English Journal*, XXXIV (December, 1945), 552-54.

Describes a double-period, tenth-grade class which "retains the best points of integration without the features to which many English teachers object."

126. MARCHAM, FREDERICK G. "Teaching Critical Thinking and the Use of Evidence," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXI (October, 1945), 362-68.

Describes graded series of exercises to teach college Freshmen to think critically about

historical evidence. Applicable to high-school history.

127. MERIDETH, DOROTHY. "Secondary School Social Studies in 1945," *Social Education*, IX (December, 1945), 345-49.

Reports results of survey of social-studies offerings in 1944-45 and of gradual changes since 1939-40.

128. MIDDLE STATES COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES. *Significant Curriculum Developments in the Social Studies*. Proceedings 1944-45 of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies, Vol. XLII. Philadelphia: George I. Oeste, editor (5423 Westford Road), 1946. Pp. 136.

A "follow-up" of the 1944 volume, stressing United States, Latin-American, and Far Eastern history in high school and intercultural education in elementary school.

129. MYER, WALTER E. "Political Education for the Atomic Age," *Social Studies*, XXXVII (February, 1946), 56-60.

Suggests "continuing and continuous study of peoples and problems" throughout high school and gives other procedures for improving civic education.

130. NEUMANN, FREDERIC T. "A Theory of the Social Studies," *Journal of Education*, CXXVIII (December, 1945), 300-302.

Argues that the social studies are the "technology and co-ordinator of the social sciences"; objectives of the social studies are "to make the world economically, socially and ethically intelligible" and the individual similarly responsible.

131. "Pioneer Thinkers Contribute to Intercultural Education: Professional Seminars," *Intercultural Education News*, VII (June, 1946), 1-12.

Summarizes points of view of L. K. Frank, F. Redl, C. R. Rogers, G. W. Allport, Kurt Lewin, L. E. Raths, R. J. Havighurst, and Beardsley Rumel.

132. PRICE, MAURICE T. "A World Perspective for the Average Student," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVI (November and December, 1945), 413-19; 466-71, 500.

Proposes four social-science areas for general education (applicable to junior college): (1) power potentials and interdependence; (2) race and cultural change; (3) intensive study of one socio-cultural region; (4) social dynamics of conflict, adjustment, and peace systems.

133. REDFIELD, ROBERT. "Issues Faced in the Improvement of Upper-Division Curriculums in the Social Sciences," *Emergent Responsibilities in Higher Education*, pp. 95-106. Compiled and edited by John Dale Russell, with the assistance of Donald M. Mackenzie. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1945, Vol. XVII. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946.

Suggests that pre-college social studies teach students (1) to recognize the difference between fact and opinion and to develop appropriate skills; (2) to know one or two other cultures well; (3) to read a few good books on "society and man's human and social nature"; and (4) a knowledge of places and of past events.

134. REEVES, FLOYD W. "Youth and the World of Tomorrow," *School Review*, LIV (May, 1946), 263-69.

Sees education in the social sciences and humanities as the only possibility of saving civilization from disaster.

135. REHAGE, KENNETH J. "Social Studies in Junior High School—Some Desirable Characteristics," *Social Education*, X (March, 1946), 105-7.

Stresses teacher-pupil planning; harmony of school and departmental objectives; subject matter, a means; variety of learning aids; and good balance of activities.

136. ROBINSON, EDGAR EUGENE. "A New American History," *School and Society*, LXIII (February 2, 1946), 73-76.

Calls for (1) lessening the amount of subject matter, (2) enlarging the basic geographic and population data, (3) giving more attention to the last fifty years, (4) emphasizing vital ideas of 1919-41, and (5) presenting the "complete political record."

137. SMITH, MAHLON B. "Did War Service Produce International-Mindedness?" *Harvard Educational Review*, XV (October, 1945), 250-57.

Analysis of attitudes of American soldiers abroad toward foreign peoples reveals an appallingly high degree of ethnocentrism and poses basic problems of social education, in which the writer believes our schools, by and large, have failed.

138. SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH COUNCIL, COMMITTEE ON HISTORIOGRAPHY. *Theory and Practice in Historical Study*. Bulletin No. 54. New York: Social Science Research Council, 1946. Pp. xii+178.

Examines fundamental propositions of historiography and its controlling assumptions, illustrating use of frames of reference in interpretations of the American Civil War. Defines basic terms and adds selective bibliography. Useful to thoughtful social-studies teachers, though addressed to professional historians.

139. TABA, HILDA, and WILSON, HOWARD E. "Intergroup Education through the School Curriculum," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCXLIV (March, 1946), 19-25.

Argues for school instruction on formation of individual personality, concepts of assimilation and cultural pluralism, avoidance of stereotypes, social sensitivity, critical thinking, and techniques of intergroup action.

140. "UNESCO and Education in the World Today," *School Executive*, LXVI (October, 1946), 51-94.

Includes articles on teaching for international understanding in small and large systems and an instructive fable by Herbert J. Abraham.

141. WEAVER, ROBERT B. "The Superintendent in the Social-Studies Program," *School Review*, LIV (February, 1946), 90-93.
Useful "leads" for school administrators, especially for those who have special competence in the social studies.
142. WHITE, HOWARD. "Political Science and the Social Studies," *American Political Science Review*, XL (October, 1946), 966-71.
The Committee on the Social Studies of the American Political Science Association analyzes the ways in which political scientists may aid social education in the schools.
143. WHITE, LAWRENCE B. "American History and Civics Instruction in California High Schools," *California Schools*, XVII (March, 1946), 41-49.
Time requirements and textbooks used in Grades XI and XII in classes in United States history and government.
144. WILLIAMS, ESTHER. "Facts and Democratic Values Reduce Racial Prejudices," *Social Education*, X (April, 1946), 154-56.
A combined class in social studies, English, and high-school Freshman orientation practices critical thinking about minority groups.
145. WIRTH, FREMONT P. "History in the Liberal Arts College," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXXIII, (June, 1946), 121-27.
Most of the author's nine points are adaptable to high-school history. Stresses need for well-selected, general, terminal college courses which include some biography and historical method.
146. WOMER, P. P. *Citizenship and the New Day*. New York: Abingdon-Cokesbury Press, 1945. Pp. 320.
Discusses origins, functions, and historical and idealistic character of democratic citizenship. Indicates nature of education essential to competent citizenship.

GEOGRAPHY¹

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147. BARNES, CHARLES C. "Fifteen Years of High School Geography," *Journal of Geography*, XLV (September, 1946), 213-20.
Outlines two high-school courses in geography, one in physical geography and the other in economic geography, and suggests the phases which need emphasis in each course and why.
148. FOSTER, ALICE. "Geography in Off-Duty Educational Opportunities for Armed Forces," *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, XXXV (December, 1945), 167-80.
Describes work done in geographic training with armed forces during the last war.
149. FRANK, R. W. "The Use of the Field Trip in Teaching a Phase of the Steel Industry at the Senior High Level," *Journal of Geography*, XLV (November, 1946), 322-26.
Shows the importance of the field trip in making the teaching of geography effective.
150. GAUGHAN, MARY A. "A High School Geography Course in Flux," *Journal of Geography*, XLV (March, 1946), 109-13.
Explains how a course of study developed around points of interest during World War II.
151. GREENLEAF, PETER. "Elementary Meteorology in Junior High School Geography," *Journal of Geography*, XLIV (November, 1945), 336-37.
Sets forth the major ideas which ought to be gained in a unit on meteorology and suggests how to present these to junior high school students.
152. KESTOL, JAMES W. "Economic Geography of Your Country: A High School

¹ See also Item 542 (Pickelsimer) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1946, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

- Project," *Business Education World*, XXVI (January, 1946), 265.
Lists and comments on material which should be included in a high-school course on economic geography.
153. LEMAIRE, MINNIE E. "A Universal Subject—Geography—for Secondary School," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (April, 1946), 335-38.
Lists types of practical, interesting subject matter and describes the needs which each type fills.
154. LICHTON, ELIZABETH S. "Iron and Steel: A High School Unit in World Geography," *Journal of Geography*, XLV (May, 1946), 188-94.
Outlines the unit, stresses the essential understandings to be gained, and presents the test which was used.
155. OTT, GEORGE W. "High Schools Need More Geography," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XX (November, 1945), 410-13.
Advocates geography as a four-year course because of its important relation to life, history, citizenship, and world order.
156. PHILLIPS, MARY VIOLA. "Unit II: Climate and Weather, for a Course in Global Geography," *Journal of Geography*, XLV (March, 1946), 103-8.
Outlines unit, study assignments, and terms to be understood.
157. PHILLIPS, MARY VIOLA. "Unit III: Population, for a Course in Global Geography," *Journal of Geography*, XLV (April, 1946), 142-48.
Presents the unit, including assignments, as it was actually used by the author.
158. PHILLIPS, MARY VIOLA. "Unit IV: The Pacific and Its Islands, for a Course in Global Geography," *Journal of Geography*, XLV (September, 1946), 234-42.
Gives reasons for teaching such a unit, outlines the unit, and presents typical work sheets used in the unit.
159. SMITH, VILLA B. "The Bulk Freight Trade of the Great Lakes," *Journal of Geography*, XLV (October, 1946), 257-67.
Develops a unit on the Great Lakes trade, which is based on information given in the marine news in the local papers.
160. TURNER, HELEN S. "Aviation Geography in the Oak Park High School," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (April, 1946), 358-64.
Explains the course, why it was begun, the prerequisites, the material included, and the methods of handling.
161. WHIPPLE, GERTRUDE, and JAMES, PRESTON E. "Man's Experience versus Earth Environment as Geographic Control," *Elementary School Journal*, XLVI (February, 1946), 312-17.
Defines geography and discusses the skills needed to interpret accurately the cultural needs and developments of the various nations of the world.

SCIENCE⁴

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162. AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE, COOPERATIVE COMMITTEE ON SCIENCE TEACHING. "Report No. 4: The Preparation of High School Science and Mathematics Teachers," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (February, 1946), 107-18.
Presents recommendations for academic and professional preparation of prospective teachers.
163. BERNAL, J. D. "Science Teaching in General Education," *Science Education*, XXIX (December, 1945), 233-40.
Discusses the role of science-teaching in general education.

⁴ See also Item 621 (Greene) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1946, number of the *School Review*.

164. CARLETON, ROBERT H. "An Investigation of the Director or Supervisor of Science in the Public Schools," *Science Education*, XXX (February, 1946), 11-19.
Questionnaire results from 31 cities, none of which had a population of less than 150,000.
165. *Commercial Supplementary Teaching Materials*. Washington: Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals [no date]. Pp. 24.
Discusses aids to teaching as furnished by business institutions.
166. CUNNINGHAM, HARRY A. "Lecture Demonstration versus Individual Laboratory Method in Science Teaching—A Summary," *Science Education*, XXX (March, 1946), 70-82.
Summarizes the results of fifty-two studies in this field and lists a complete bibliography.
167. EVANS, HUBERT M. "Science Laboratory—Workshop for a Small School," *School Executive*, LXV (July, 1946), 52-54.
Gives detailed plans for setting up a science workshop.
168. KEESLAR, OREON. "The Elements of Scientific Method," *Science Education*, XXIX (December, 1945), 273-78.
Presents an outline of the elements of scientific method validated by the expert opinion of twenty-two research scientists.
169. KEESLAR, OREON. "Contributions of Instructional Films to the Teaching of High School Science," *Science Education*, XXX (March and April, 1946), 82-88, 132-36.
Presents results of an investigation to determine how selected institutional films contribute to three major objectives of science-teaching.
170. MATSON, VIRGINIA F., and PIERCE, PAUL R. "Science in the Core Curriculum," *School Review*, LIV (February, 1946), 83-89.
Describes a science program which was developed through co-operative effort of teachers, pupils, parents, and lay leaders.
171. PETERSON, SHAILER. "The Evaluation of a One-Year Course, the Fusion of Physics and Chemistry, with Other Physical Courses," *Science Education*, XXIX (December, 1945), 255-64.
Presents results of a study comparing the achievement of pupils in a fusion course with the achievement of pupils following traditional courses in physics and chemistry.
172. PRUITT, CLARENCE M. "Science Reading Materials for Pupils and Teachers," *Science Education*, XXX (February and March, 1946), 39-49, 90-99.
A classified list of references to new books in science.
173. ROBERTSON, MARTIN L. "Trends in the Teaching of Science," *Educational Forum*, X (May, 1946), 463-71.
Traces the changes in objectives in science education in the elementary school and the high school.
174. ROBINSON, MYRA Z. "The Contribution of a Fused Science Course to General Education," *School Review*, LIV (April, 1946), 215-21.
Presents criteria for selection of materials of instruction and their application to a specific unit.
175. SCHNECK, JOHN W. "The Practical Value of Certain Topics in a Course in Biology," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (April, 1946), 318-22.
Presents results of a questionnaire to pupils and teachers.
176. STERN, BERNHARD J. "Possible Health Teaching Objectives and Evaluation of Their Attainment," *Science Education*, XXX (February, 1946), 24-35.
Presents the elements of a health education program.

177. SUTTON, TRAVER C. "Cost Factors in Science Teaching," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (April, 1946), 344-50.

Specific suggestions to science teachers for co-operating in the matter of reducing the cost of science instruction.

178. WEISBRUCH, FRED T. "An Experimental Evaluation of the Semimicro Method of Teaching High School Chemistry," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (November, 1946), 768-78.

Presents results and discusses advantages of the method mentioned.

MATHEMATICS⁵

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179. AHRENDT, M. H. "Pet Peeves of a Mathematics Teacher," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (February, 1946), 71-74.

An appeal for orderly thought-processes and for understanding of procedures rather than manipulation of symbols and the answer only.

180. BLANCHE, ERNEST E. "The Mathematics of Gambling," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (March, 1946), 217-27.

Discusses the probability of winning in each of several games of chance.

181. BLOCK, WILLIAM E. "Magic Squares and Cubes," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLV (December, 1945), 839-50.

An analysis of the structures of magic squares and cubes, methods of construc-

tion, and a complete set of figures for $7 \times 7 \times 7$ magic cubes.

182. BRAVERMAN, BENJAMIN. "Changing Objectives in the Teaching of Algebra and Trigonometry in the Senior High School," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (November, 1946), 314-19.

The writer stresses the need for greater emphasis on functional content and a continued decrease in emphasis on formal content in teaching.

183. BRESLICH, E. R. "Some Proposals Regarding the Preparation for Teaching High School Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (May, 1946), 200-205.

The writer makes several suggestions for improving instruction in the subject.

184. CARNAHAN, WALTER H. "History of Algebra," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (January, 1946), 7-12.

One of a series of thirteen broadcasts from Purdue University School of the Air on "Mathematical History and the Men Who Made It."

185. CARNAHAN, WALTER H. "Adjusting the Teaching of Mathematics to the Requirements of General Education," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (May, 1946), 211-16.

Advocates increased emphasis on philosophy and history in our teaching of mathematics.

186. CHALLMAN, MILDRED. "The Retention of Arithmetic and Algebra in Relation to Achievement in Plane Geometry," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (February, 1946), 77-79.

An abstract of a Master's thesis in which the author seeks to answer several questions related to the title.

187. CHRISTOFFERSON, H. C. "Mathematics the Language of Quantity," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (February, 1946), 101-6.

Reminds teachers that mathematics is a complex, intricate network of meanings

⁵ See also Item 180 (Breslich) in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1946, number of the *School Review*, Item 517 (Benz) in the October, 1946, number of the same journal; and Item 551 (Esbach) in the November, 1946, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

and a system of closely related laws and techniques that have a vast array of applications.

188. FAWCETT, HAROLD P., and BARCUS, HOWARD J. "Conservation and Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (June, 1946), 505-16.
Through the use of typical exercises, the authors show how material on conservation may be used to advantage in classes in mathematics.
189. GEORGES, J. S. "Elasticity of Elementary Functions," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (January, 1946), 17-24.
The first of a sequence of articles presenting the concept of elasticity of functions as one of the concepts that has great importance in economics and that can yield rich interpretations in other sciences.
190. GOWAN, ARTHUR M. "Some Forgotten Areas of Instruction in Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (October, 1946), 281-83.
The writer discusses three areas of incompetence found in men who were taking special naval training.
191. HAWKINS, G. E. "Adjusting the Program in Mathematics to the Needs of Pupils," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (May, 1946), 206-10.
Describes a plan of sectioning pupils in mathematics used in one school and discusses some of the problems involved.
192. HENDERSHOT, W. G. "A Suggested Program for Teaching the Function Concepts in High School Algebra," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (March, 1946), 121-26.
Cites pupils' deficiencies in work in physics as evidence of the need for emphasizing the function concept in the teaching of algebra.
193. MACDUFFEE, C. C. "An Objective in Education," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVIII (December, 1945), 339-44.
Advocates a philosophy of education fitted to the capacity of the pupil, with special attention to the capable pupil and his need for a liberal education in science.
194. NEWSON, C. V., and RANDOLPH, JOHN F. "Trigonometry without Angles," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (February, 1946), 66-68.
The authors emphasize the importance of teaching the trigonometric functions of numbers instead of limiting the definition to apply to angles only.
195. NYBERG, JOSEPH A. "Notes from a Mathematics Classroom," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (February, 1946), 168-71.
One of a series of articles giving suggestions on teaching various topics. This particular article deals with teaching verbal problems.
196. SCHULT, VERYL. "The Junior High School Textbook—Plus," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (May, 1946), 217-20.
Describes the advances made in textbooks and stresses the need for teachers who realize that pupils learn by doing.
197. SLEIGHT, NORMA. "Conics Are Fun," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLV (December, 1945), 787-91.
Displays a clever set of exercises designed for a special purpose.
198. STABLER, E. R. "Demonstrative Algebra," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (October, 1946), 255-60.
The author advocates the postulational treatment of algebra for groups of selected pupils.
199. SYER, HENRY W. "The Effects of Military Training upon General Education," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (January, 1946), 3-16.
From his experiences in the Army, the writer makes suggestions involving rather drastic revisions in the teaching of mathematics.
200. TORRANCE, PAUL. "Mathematics Interest—Fundamental or Not?" *Mathe-*

matics Teacher, XXXIX (January, 1946), 24-26.

The author summarizes the construction of an interest inventory in mathematics, its application, and the results obtained.

201. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "A Testing Program for Mathematics at the Secondary-School Level," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (November, 1946), 303-13.

Shows that objective tests are one of several kinds of evaluation in mathematics useful in appraisal of aptitude and achievement, in diagnosis, and in guidance.

202. TRUMP, PAUL. "Utilizing Pupil Experiences in Their Discovery of Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLVI (June, 1946), 521-27.

The writer advocates giving greater recognition to the pupils' past experiences, environment, and ability in the teaching approach used in mathematics.

203. WELKOWITZ, SAMUEL. "Tenth Year Geometry for All American Youth," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIX (March, 1946), 99-112.

Advocates much greater use of experimentation and wider use of practical applications.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE

FRANCIS F. POWERS

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204. AGARD, FREDERICK B. "Aspects of Aural Testing," *French Review*, XIX (May, 1946), 423-27.

Discusses, with particular reference to French, the aural test series constructed and administered by the Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language.

205. BLAYNE, THORNTON C. "Results of Developmental Reading Procedures in First-Year Spanish," *Modern Language Journal*, XXX (January, 1946), 39-43.

Describes the use of developmental reading techniques in a first-year Spanish class and urges broader use of validated procedures and techniques from other subject-

matter areas in foreign-language instruction.

206. BOVÉE, ARTHUR GIBBON, and FROELICH, GUSTAV J. "Some Observations on the Relationship between Mental Ability and Achievement in French," *School Review*, LIII (November, 1945), 534-37.

Indicates that mental-ability rating is more closely identified with advanced foreign-language courses requiring initiative than with beginning classes in which the possibility of success may depend on such factors as motivation.

207. BRODIE, P. H. "Teaching the Use of the Reflexive," *Classical Journal*, XLI (April, 1946), 332-35.

Recommends a rule which is based on classroom use for teaching the use of the reflexive pronoun.

208. CANNELL, RITA GREEN. "Let's Speak Spanish!" *Clearing House*, XX (April, 1946), 491-92.

Suggests that (1) beginning with sounds and (2) adapting the material to factual things in the lives of students are important factors in the effective teaching of conversational Spanish.

209. FRIEDMAN, BETTY G. "Which Students Study a Language?" *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XX (December, 1945), 438-41.

Presents the results of a study made to determine the typical boy or girl who is studying a foreign language in a typical American community. The ultimate purpose of the study is to adapt teaching materials and methods to the needs and interests of the students enrolled in the courses.

210. GIRARD, DANIEL P. "Unit in Use of Audio-visual Aids," *Modern Language Journal*, XXX (February, 1946), 62-68.

Presents practical suggestions for the use of audio-visual materials in foreign-language study. Gives an excellent source list and a sample lesson plan.

211. HUEBENER, THEODORE. "The Harvard Report," *French Review*, XIX (December, 1945), 109-10.
 Criticizes the Harvard Report, *General Education in a Free Society*, in terms of its recommendations for foreign-language study.
212. JOHNSON, LAURA B. "A Cultural Unit in Second-Year Spanish," *Hispania*, XXIX (August, 1946), 377-80.
 Outlines an extensive unit for a second-year class in high-school Spanish and emphasizes the fact that the content of a class is as important as the manner in which the material is presented.
213. JOHNSTON, MARJORIE C. "Federal Assistance for the Teaching of Spanish and Portuguese," *Hispania*, XXIX (February, 1946), 19-26.
 Describes special training programs, study and residence abroad, teacher-education projects, and exchange of information and materials as concrete forms of federal assistance to language teaching.
214. KETTELKAMP, GILBERT C. "Student Achievement in Two or More Foreign Languages as Related to Order of Study," *School Review*, LIII (December, 1945), 610-14.
 Indicates, in an attempt to stimulate further investigation, that a language should be chosen for its own value rather than for its value as a preparation for another language.
215. KOELLA, CHARLES E. "A Few Points of French Grammar To Clarify for Our Students," *Modern Language Journal*, XXX (April, 1946), 195-201.
 Elaborates on eleven specific points of French grammar which the author believes are not adequately covered in American textbooks.
216. MARTZ, DINGLE RUCKER, and SCHWERDTMANN, ISABELLE RUTH. "Beginning Latin: The First Few Days," *Classical Journal*, XLI (May, 1946), 376-79.
 Suggests a practical plan for developing the proper attitude toward the study of Latin during the first days of instruction.
217. MERCER, LUCILLE. "French No Substitute for Spanish," *Journal of Education*, CXXIX (February, 1946), 62-63.
 Discusses some of the points raised by Louis Foley in his article, "Language Picture Out of Focus," appearing in the May, 1946, issue of the *Journal of Education*, in which he states his belief that undue emphasis has been placed on the learning of Spanish.
218. MORGAN, BAYARD QUINCY. "Functions of the Language Teacher," *Modern Language Journal*, XXX (March, 1946), 134-36.
 Reviews the teacher's responsibility to his students in terms of organization, elucidation, approbation, appraisal, and inspiration.
219. NEWMARK, MAXIM. "The Intensive Reading Lesson in Scientific German," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVIII (February, 1946), 64-70.
 Presents an excellent lesson plan for correlating foreign-language study with a science curriculum.
220. OPPENHEIMER, OSKAR. "Methods in the Teaching of Foreign Languages with Special Reference to German," *School Review*, LIV (February, 1946), 94-101.
 Presents suggestions for a new approach to the teaching of conversational German, which minimizes grammar drill and places the responsibility for careful lesson-planning on the teacher.
221. PEI, MARIO A. "Some Reflections on the Harvard Report," *French Review*, XIX (January, 1946), 168-73.
 Criticizes the recommendation that foreign-language study in the high schools be replaced by a general-language course "to illuminate English" in meeting the aims of general education.

222. RICE, WINTHROP H. with the assistance of HELEN BOGDON. "Teaching Foreign Languages," *Review of Educational Research*, XVI (April, 1946), 139-60.
Reviews and classifies research in the area of foreign-language teaching since 1943 and shows the tendency toward the conversational aim.
223. RICE, WINTHROP H. "Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology," *Modern Language Journal*, XXX (May, 1946), 290-308.
Offers an excellent bibliography of materials on modern-language study and teaching which were published in the United States during 1945.
224. SACHS, LEONIE F. "The Contribution of Foreign Language Study to Better Understanding of English," *Hispania*, XXIX (May, 1946), 245-52.
Encourages the foreign-language teacher to emphasize the semantic differences between English and other languages in an attempt
- to understand better the idiomatic structure of phrases and words that cannot be literally translated into English.
225. SANTEE, J. F. "Refocusing the Language Picture," *Social Studies*, XXXVII (March, 1946), 120-24.
Points out the different eras of interest in foreign languages and recommends that current interests be encouraged rather than redirected according to previous emphasis.
226. SORIERI, LOUIS E. "A Reading Lesson Correlated with Cultural Content," *Modern Language Journal*, XXX (January, 1946), 14-19.
Emphasizes, by means of a detailed lesson plan, the importance of correlating cultural material with a reading lesson.
227. WHITE, EMILIE MARGARET. "French at Ten," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXXV (April, 1946), 186-87.
Describes an experiment in the teaching of French in which the oral repetition method is used in a second- and a fifth-grade class.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF SOUTHERN STATES.

—There is a common opinion that schools in the Southern states do not measure up to the standards prevailing in other sections of the country. Statistical comparisons, with frequent emphasis on expenditures for education, quite regularly show that Southern school systems are conspicuously below the average for the nation as a whole. Such comparisons tend to obscure the notable attainments of the Southern states in certain aspects of characteristically modern educational programs. It is, indeed, a familiar fact to students of modern trends in education that some of the movements of greatest promise for such ideals as democracy in education and equality of educational opportunity are exemplified in both statutory enactments and community enterprise in behalf of schools in Southern states. Some of the effects of such progressive legislation and local initiative are described in a volume dealing with education at the secondary level in the Southern section.¹

This report of the development of Southern high schools originated as a project in connection with the sesquicentennial celebration of the founding of the University of North Carolina. The fourteen articles included in the volume were first published in four issues of the *High School Journal* in 1945. The authors of these articles are generally representative of educational leader-

ship in the Southern states and are severally identified with the social and technical aspects of education with which their individual contributions are concerned.

The historical background of current conditions and practices in the secondary schools is described in the first article, which is based on a discriminating analysis of the economic, political, and social factors that have promoted or retarded educational progress in Southern areas. In the second article the foundational movements directed toward the extension and equalization of educational opportunity throughout the state systems of education are explained. The succeeding articles comprise a series of descriptive and interpretative reports of progress achieved by high schools, particularly since the disruption of Southern systems of education resulting from the Civil War.

Much of the progress noted is attributed to the consistent efforts of institutions and agencies which are interested in the problem of raising the standards underlying the general organization and services of the secondary schools. Specific features of secondary education, which are described as marking lines of improvement that distinguish the programs of particular state or local school systems, include the most significant functions and practices of American schools of secondary grade. Thus the adaptation of instruction to the needs of rural youth is exemplified in the program of the farm-life school in North Carolina and in the later introduction of practical courses into high-school programs, generally under provisions of federal aid for vocational education.

Curriculum development on a state-wide

¹ *Secondary Education in the South*. Edited by W. Carson Ryan, J. Minor Gwynn, and Arnold K. King. University of North Carolina Sesquicentennial Publications. Chapel Hill, North Carolina: University of North Carolina Press, 1946. Pp. xii+270. \$3.00.

basis is traced from the well-known Virginia plan, through the co-operative projects in eight or ten other states, through its culmination in a seven-year program initiated by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Curriculum study in local school systems is identified with the distinctive developments in the Parker District adjacent to Greenville, South Carolina, and in Ascension Parish, a unit of the Louisiana state school system. Community education is explained in terms of adult participation in curriculum enrichment and pupil participation in community projects as developed through the Roger Clark Ballard Memorial School in Jefferson County, Kentucky; through the program in family-life education in Greensboro, North Carolina; and through the Sloan Foundation Experiments in Applied Economics, one relating to housing and serving selected communities in Florida, the other carried on in rural schools of Kentucky and emphasizing food and nutrition as factors in the improvement of the life and economy of relatively backward areas.

In characterizing educational developments in the Southern states, with reference to the foregoing features of the work of the schools as well as in relation to several other movements which have not been specifically mentioned, considerable credit is ascribed by the authors of these articles to governmental agencies, foundations, voluntary associations, and educational institutions which have provided counsel and support for many of the experimental and co-operative enterprises described in this volume. The report is valuable for its informative content and is inspirational in its portrayal of progress toward desirable educational goals—progress which has been achieved in some instances in spite of slender resources and discouraging obstacles. It will be read with much interest by teachers and school administrators in all sections of the country.

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THE IMPULSE TO BE SOCIAL.—It is becoming increasingly apparent that early educational experiences should equip the individual to participate effectively as part of a group. While groups may be formed for many diverse reasons and the individual's participation within them may be of varying kinds, the stability of most groups (at least those not formed arbitrarily by a higher authority) depends on the willingness of the individual members to associate with one another. It seems to be true that some individuals react positively toward their fellows and want to be with them, while other individuals do not care for such contact with people and prefer to dissociate themselves from others. Hartley has undertaken a study¹ of the attitude of wanting to be with others.

For purposes of her study the author defines this attitude, which she calls "sociality," as the "degree of acceptance with which an individual reacts to other individuals of his own sex-age status" (p. 2). She distinguishes this term from such concepts as sociability or gregariousness, which usually imply the expression of this social impulse in direct contact with one's fellows. Sociality, in contrast, refers only to the desire for such contact. This desire she conceives as having two aspects, extensity and intensity. Extensity refers to the number of personal contacts desired and intensity to the degree of affect aroused by contact with peers.

Hartley's study is directed toward the analysis of the functioning of sociality in boys from ten to twelve years of age, toward the study of the consistency of this impulse, and toward the answering of such specific questions as: What is the relation between sociality and actual relations with peers? How accurately do individuals rate themselves in sociality? What is the relation between self-ratings and self-satisfaction? How

¹ Ruth Edith Hartley, *Sociality in Pre-adolescent Boys*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 918. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946. Pp. 118. \$1.85.

do negatively toned incidents, such as rebuffs and aggressive actions, affect the expression of sociality in situations involving interaction among individuals?

The study was conducted in three parts. The first part concerns a group of 140 boys, from ten to twelve years old, of homogeneous economic and scholastic background, to whom five tests of sociality were administered, two of these being repeated six months later with 100 of this group. For the next part of the study, three pairs of groups, selected as extremes of sociality, were tested. To two of these pairs three tests of sociality and two measures of relationships with peers were administered. In the third part, fourteen boys were studied intensively through observation, case-history material, sociality tests, Rorschach, and Thematic Apperception Tests.

Hartley's study does, indeed, throw some light on the relations between the individual and his group and on the operation of a drive for social contact. It would seem, however, that, had she spent less time on the collection of test data on a large number of cases and more time on the detailed analysis of the social-group behavior of fewer cases, the results would have proved far more productive. The analysis of her 140 subjects and of her pairs of groups are impressive for the predominance of reference to correlation coefficients of unimposing size and to differences between groups that are statistically insignificant. The section of her report that is the most enlightening and the most productive of further hypotheses is the one devoted to the fourteen boys who were observed and studied intensively. While it appears that Hartley missed a good source of data by what seems to be either an ignoring, or at least an under-analysis, of the Rorschach and Thematic Apperception Test data, her observations of behavior in groups and her relating of these data to personality variables and to the sociality variable are made with telling insight. In each of the cases discussed, there are many suggestions

that should highlight for most classroom teachers some problem of understanding a child in his classroom group. One further criticism might be made. That is, despite the well-intentioned and scientifically appropriate effort to isolate the single factor of sociality, a less gross classification of the relations of the individual to the group might have been more realistic in terms of the behavioral complexities of these relations and might have resulted in more definitive, if more complex, generalizations.

In spite of these objections, the following conclusions of considerable interest emerge from her data.

Sociality itself has a core of reality and stability that seems to operate as a unifying force in most social situations. This might be paraphrased by the observation that "to a friendly boy, all boys seem friendly." However, it is also apparent that the observation of this force and the prediction of behavior based on it are possible only when the social situation is clearly defined.

Further, for each individual carefully studied, a special constellation of qualities in the social situation seemed to have a unique evocative effect. Not all boys reacted alike to the same social situation, but each seemed to select certain aspects of the situation and to be reactive to those factors in a unique way.

Individuals who are relatively less popular with their group tend to feel more "different" from other individuals than do those who are more popular. The more "different" a boy feels from his classmates, the less friendly they seem to him, and the less friendly he appears to them.

Popularity does not bear a direct relation to desire for social contact, and, conversely, desire for social contact does not guarantee social acceptability. From these data it would appear that the successful expression of the impulse of sociality is bound up with an ability to act aggressively and to accept the aggression of others.

In summary, Hartley states that the con-

cept of extroversion, the general out-goingness of psychic energy, may be valid when applied to the socially successful individual, but that the implications of its converse do not accurately describe the dynamics of the socially withdrawn. Further it appears that the social impulse is present in all individuals but may be so hampered by conflicts or tensions within the individual, or by factors inherent in the social situation, that its conversion into satisfactory social relations is impeded.

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A NEW EMPHASIS ON BASIC MATHEMATICS.—To many of us a course in mathematics means merely the developing of techniques involved in arithmetical computations. Today, however, a well-adjusted citizen needs a mathematical literacy that will enable him to understand what is going on in the world about him. He needs understandings, appreciations, and insights as well as computational skills. World War II revealed that far too many students graduate from our educational institutions lacking the mathematical skills which are essential in our present workaday world. A basic textbook in mathematics¹ that gives considerations to these needs is timely indeed. The book has been constructed around the mathematical objectives set forth by the Commission on Post-War Plans, and the major concern of the authors has been to reach these goals through presenting basic ideas in a manner that will enable students to understand and appreciate their usefulness.

The volume is divided into fourteen distinct units. The first unit, "The Age of Precision," shows the importance of precision instruments in modern life. In the two units dealing with decimals, the student is intro-

duced to them through examples of their use in modern life. The unit, "Practical Applications of Decimals," deserves special mention because it does what so many books fail to do—portrays for the student the use of decimals in his everyday experiences. The units on "Direction in Human Affairs" and "The Basic Constructions" continue this trend, but here the simple geometrical principles are related to modern living. The units on geometry are followed by a rather composite unit on algebra, and corresponding space is given to units on "Scale Drawings," "How We Use Per Cents," "Managing Your Money," "The Right Triangle," and "Experience with Formulas." The remaining units need a few words of explanation. "How To Picture Number Relations" makes use of graphs as a method of representing statistical facts or data. "The Struggle for a Better World" treats problems relating to all types of insurance, annuities, and taxation. The unit on "Home and Job Arithmetic" covers the important subjects of family budgets, instalment buying, and the cost of borrowing money. The book is concluded with sections entitled "Answers to Tests," a "Record of Progress," and "Tables for Reference."

The publication represents a carefully constructed textbook for use in those secondary schools that are trying to give their students the mathematics which are needed in this new Atomic Age. Each unit begins with a list of objectives around which the teaching materials are centered. A final test at the end of each unit determines whether or not these objectives have been reached. For students who are low in basic skills of arithmetic, groups of instructional tests are provided. Stress has been placed on the understanding of simple concepts, and the appreciation of principles is emphasized. Abstract arithmetical drill is held to a minimum. If the objectives of the respective units are achieved, the student will be capable of meeting his basic arithmetical needs and of understanding ordinary algebraic and geometrical concepts.

¹ Raleigh Schorling and John R. Clark, *Mathematics in Life: Basic Course*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1946. Pp. xii+500. \$1.80.

It seems, however, that the sequence of the units might have been better. The unit on algebra, for instance, would seem more appropriate if it were preceded by the unit "Experience with Formulas." Similar comment seems in order for the units "Direction in Human Affairs" and "The Basic Con-

structions." Then, too, exposing the ordinary junior high school student to so great a variety of concepts as quickly as seems necessary if this textbook is followed, may well result in some inhibitions.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

ARTHUR, GRACE. *Tutoring as Therapy*. New York 22: Commonwealth Fund (41 East Fifty-seventh Street), 1946. Pp. x+126. \$1.50.

BYERLY, CARL LESTER. *Contributions of William Torrey Harris to Public School Administration*. A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Division of the Social Sciences in Candidacy for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy. Chicago 37: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1946. Pp. viii+220. (Order from author at Wydown School, Clayton, Missouri.)

CASWELL, HOLLIS L. (editor). *The American High School: Its Responsibility and Opportunity*. Eighth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. viii+264. \$3.00.

HOBAN, CHARLES F., JR. *Movies That Teach*. New York 16: Dryden Press, 1946. Pp. xiv+190. \$2.50.

Improving Reading in Content Fields. Compiled and edited by WILLIAM S. GRAY. Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading Held at the University of Chicago, Vol. VIII. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 62. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1947. Pp. viii+242. \$2.00.

JERSILD, ARTHUR T., in collaboration with MARY E. CHAYER, CHARLOTTE FEHLMAN, GERTRUDE HILDRETH, and MARIAN YOUNG. *Child Development and the Cur-*

riculum. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946. Pp. xii+274. \$2.75.

MACKIE, ROMAINE PRIOR. *Crippled Children in American Education, 1939-1942*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 913. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945. Pp. viii+144. \$2.10.

Problems of Faculty Personnel. Compiled and edited by JOHN DALE RUSSELL. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1946, Vol. XVIII. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1946. Pp. vi+146. \$2.00.

STRAYER, GEORGE D. *Public Education in Washington*. A Report of a Survey of Public Education in the State of Washington. Submitted to GOVERNOR MON C. WALLGREN, September 5, 1946. Pp. xvi+664.

WITMER, HELEN LELAND (editor). *Psychiatric Interviews with Children*. New York 22: Commonwealth Fund (41 East Fifty-seventh Street), 1946. Pp. viii+444.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

ANDERSON, HOWARD R. (editor). *Workbook To Accompany "World History" by Boak, Slosson, and Anderson*, pp. vi+202; *Tests To Accompany "World History" by Boak, Slosson, and Anderson*, pp. ii+30. \$1.00. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1946.

DE SAINT-EXUPÉRY, ANTOINE. *Le Petit prince*. Educational Edition, with Introduction, Notes, Vocabulary, and Bibliog-

- raphy prepared by JOHN RICHARDSON MILLER. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1946. Pp. xx+108. \$1.50.
- EDMONSON, JAMES B., DONDINEAU, ARTHUR, and LETTON, MILDRED C. *Civics for Youth*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1946. Pp. x+406. \$1.88.
- EHRENSBERGER, RAY, and PAGEL, ELAINE. *Notebook for Public Speaking: A College Course in Basic Principles*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946. Pp. x+166. \$2.00.
- LEWIS, DORA S.; BANKS, ANNA K.; BANKS, MARIE; BORGESON, GERTRUDE; and PECKHAM, GLADYS. *It's Your Home: A Student Guide to Homemaking*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1946. Pp. vi+174. \$1.00.
- MAXINE. *Le Saut du gouffre*. Edited by L. HAMILTON CORBETT. Toronto 1, Canada: Longmans, Green & Co. (215 Victoria Street), 1946. Pp. 148. \$0.75.
- POWERS, SAMUEL RALPH; NEUNER, ELSIE FLINT; BRUNER, HERBERT BASCOM; and BRADLEY, JOHN HODGDON. *Directed Activities. A Workbook To Guide Pupils in Their Study of Our World and Science*. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1946 (new edition). Pp. vi+266. \$0.96.
- PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM
- The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching: Forty-first Annual Report, 1945-46*. New York 18: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1946. Pp. 160.
- Challenge: Background Readings for and about the Physically Handicapped, Adults and Children*. Compiled by AGNES SHIELDS and MARCIA HILL. Reading for Background, No. 16. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co., 1946. Pp. 18. \$0.60.
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